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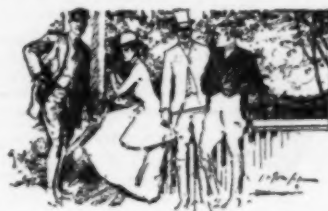


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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 7, 1910.

## The Week.

The oratorical campaign to be undertaken on behalf of the Administration will begin on Saturday with a tremendous outburst of speaking. Mr. Taft is to lead off in Washington, and Mr. Wickersham in Chicago. It is to be words, not deeds, from now on to drown the muck-rakers and malcontents, for the Administration has discovered that these criticisms are making headway. So a lot of facts about the favorable working of the Payne-Aldrich tariff are to be shaken out of elaborate sleeves, and an "aggressive note will be sounded." It has even been hinted that the Cabinet will be strengthened by the resignation of Mr. MacVeagh, his successor to be a real Republican and skilful politician, who will direct the warfare. This sounds promising. But as the public is talked at to accept the Taft Administration at its own valuation, will not the question naturally arise whether this sudden flurry of self-defence is not a confession of weakness, and whether it is not in some way connected with the arrival in Europe of the ex-President of the United States?

The *Commoner* congratulates the country and itself on the growing popularity of Democratic dinners, and begs to recommend the festal meal as the most appropriate way of honoring the memory of Jefferson next week. "At this moment," it says, "when the principles of Jefferson are boldly assailed by the dominant party, it would be well if in every precinct throughout this country men could gather, not merely for the purpose of paying tribute to an individual named Jefferson, but for the more important business of holding aloft the banners upon which are inscribed the principles to which this nation owes its birth and to which it will owe its preservation." Holding aloft the banner between the oysters and the soup may appear, at first sight, a rather tedious performance; but in the long winter of discontent that has surrounded the Democracy, it needs a little solid food to keep up the thinnest amount of courage. Shut out for so long from the

public crib, the Democracy has had the hard choice of starving or of paying for its own dinner. It is by no means a valueless habit in a great political party to practise paying one's way as one goes along. Let us hope that when the Democracy does finally win its way towards the public fleshpots, it will come, not ravening for all it may devour, but faithful to the habit of self-support it has acquired in the lean years.

We are glad to record Mr. Taft's manly stand before representatives of union labor and his good word for non-union labor—that is, for the inalienable right of the American workingman to accept employment where he pleases, when he pleases, and at what wages he sees fit to take. America's worst enemy could wish her nothing more crippling than that the trade unions should absolutely dominate the labor market. They have virtually been doing that for years in England, and more than one student of her present industrial difficulties attributes them in considerable degree to this fact. Mr. Taft, like many another, recognizes clearly that labor unions have achieved much that is good; that they have their praiseworthy sides. He thinks them absolutely necessary, too, in order to combat capitalistic organizations. But to turn over to them the destinies of every worker and every industry—that, if we properly read his words, is something unthinkable. We are only sorry that when he had the trainmen before him he did not dwell upon the evil resulting to railways and the public safety from many of their present rules and regulations and from their assumption of authority. Probably Mr. Taft has been too busy of late to read the "Confessions of a Railway Signaller," wherein some of these facts are set forth by a union man.

"Dr. Elliot's dream" is one characterization of the plan urged upon President Taft at the White House last week by Dr. Charles W. Elliot of placing all postal employees in fourth-class offices under the civil-service rules. Well, wilder dreams than this were dreamed by the original civil-service reformers, and all came true. To-day, these fourth-class

postmasters are a source of endless political strife; they are the links in many an important machine to defeat the will of the people. Upon this sort of patronage many a politician waxes powerful. Congressmen are overburdened with this sort of office-broking, and that the President should have to appoint each one is an absurdity. Good business and sound political reasons dictate the change, and President Taft should jump at the chance. He ought to do something to make his Administration distinguished—it needs plenty of bolstering up. Every President of late years has advanced the cause of civil-service reform. If he takes the advice of the Civil-Service Reform Association, he will merit the gratitude of the country; that he will thereby weaken the political machine which forced his nomination upon the country, is merely another reason for the proposed reform.

We cannot feel too grateful to Theodore Roosevelt for his thoughtfulness in advising the American people how to think about this dreadful catastrophe in Rome. There would have been Orange riots in the streets of New York to-day and the burning of a Catholic church or two in Kansas, if this calm, manly, high-minded telegram from Rome had not appeared simultaneously with the shocking news that the Pope and Mr. Roosevelt will not meet. But we are sorry for the Pope. He will miss the grasp of the mighty hunter's hand and the assurance from his own lips that he *did* visit every Catholic mission within reach just as he visited the Protestant missions; that, on the one hand, he loves his Catholic fellow-citizens, and, on the other, he loves the Protestant and Hebrew fellow-citizens just as much. Later on, we are sure, when the Pope reads this magnanimous telegram, he will repent in sackcloth and ashes. As for the American public, it will never forget that Mr. Roosevelt prevented an outraged Protestant country from rising in its wrath and beginning a religious warfare. All our people will to-day speak kindly to their Catholic friends, as he wishes, and put their revolvers back into their holsters.

The Federal Government's "raid" on

the bucket-shops, though based apparently on the fact that the enterprises attacked had been doing business in the District of Columbia, is part of an effort by the public authorities generally to stamp out a peculiarly noxious abuse. What, by some peculiar and not wholly obvious analogy of thought, our people call a bucket-shop, is not only a gambling establishment pure and simple, but is in most cases a gambling establishment which pretends to be something else. The purchases or sales of stocks, made by customers of these concerns, profess to be transactions on a margin, conducted in part with borrowed money, like operations on the Stock Exchange. The Stock Exchange requires that its members actually execute such buying or selling orders on the exchange, and severely punishes brokers who fail to do so. The bucket-shop makes no legitimate sale or purchase whatever. Not only so, but, in the language of Wall Street, it frequently "coppers" its customers by secret transactions of its own. If those customers happen to have guessed rightly in their attempts at speculation, the bucket-shop has been known to trade in a large way on the Stock Exchange, on its own account, with a view to forcing the movement of prices against its patrons. Its activities are, therefore, not merely fraudulent in character, but are of the nature of conspiracy against the people whose money and patronage it has solicited. It is on this ground that the Government is acting for the protection of its citizens.

It is the irony of fate that public dissatisfaction with Republican policies should be visited on the innocent or the comparatively innocent. Indiana, Iowa, and Minnesota are hotbeds of "insurgency," and their representatives in Congress have assailed the tariff iniquity as sharply as any Democrat. Yet it is insurgents like Beveridge of Indiana who are now threatened by the very anti-tariff sentiment which they share. Were the issue of Beveridge's reelection to the Senate one to be decided within the Republican party there would be no doubt as to its outcome. But, unfortunately, in the autumn elections for the Indiana Legislature, the campaign will be fought out as between Democrats and Republicans without regard to stand-pat and insurgent variations

among the latter, and Beveridge may have to pay for a tariff bill which he voted against, but which his party nevertheless saddled upon the country. To endorse or not to endorse, that is the question which the framers of Republican State platforms are now bound to take up with regard to the tariff; and the choice is a difficult one at best. Standing by the tariff may mean the loss of an election. Evading or condemning the tariff will be interpreted only as a confession of Republican guilt, and lead to the same result. It is a situation distinctly encouraging to Democrats.

Representative Slayden has acted promptly on one military abuse—the flagrant violation of the Constitution by three United States officers detailed to the Cuban army. The Constitution says that "no person holding any office of profit or trust under them [the United States] shall without the consent of the Congress accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State." Yet Capt. Frank Parker, Eleventh Cavalry; G. G. Gatlery, Third Field Artillery, and P. S. Golderman of the Coast Artillery are receiving pay from the Cuban Government, as well as from their own. That the War Department admits the impropriety of this appears from Secretary Dickinson's annual report. It further concedes the illegality of the situation, because a rider has been attached to the Military Academy bill, authorizing the lending of officers to Cuba and Panama on the request of the Presidents of those republics. In other words, it asks approval for a wanton violation of the Constitution which has been going on openly for about a year. Why should American officers get double pay for serving in Cuba? That is the real question. The Army of Occupation, under Gen. Barry, did not receive double pay. This is what makes the army think the whole business merely a piece of favoritism.

Pittsburgh's indicted bribe-takers and bribe-givers are fighting desperately after the manner of their kind. In their behalf counsel moved last Monday for a quashing of the charges on the ground that one of the grand jurors concerned in framing the indictment was a non-

resident of Allegheny County. And again counsel asked for a change of venue, on the ground that public sentiment was inflamed against his clients, and he read from newspapers in support of his contention. At bottom, there is no question here of the accused desiring justice. It is a question of escaping punishment by hook or crook. It is to be hoped that the Pittsburgh courts will see fit to proceed with the trial at once. The plea for a change of venue is frequently made and seldom granted nowadays. Judges have been ready to recognize that under modern conditions of publicity it is ridiculous to expect that the public shall remain quiet where the situation calls for strong feeling. It is as absurd as that other popular method of picking out jurymen who have neither read nor discussed the sensation that the very children in the cradle are prattling about. A jury of men possessed with a deep horror of graft is not at all a bad jury to sit in a graft trial.

One aspect of such revelations of widespread corruption as are now filling the newspapers is little thought of, and yet it is perhaps, in its material effects, the most important of all. Take the Pittsburgh case. Here we have city councilmen, or former city councilmen, coming in, by droves, to confess that they have taken bribes. One has taken money for a street ordinance, one for a bank ordinance, and so on. No doubt the moral aspect of this state of things is the most serious and the most intolerable. But consider also what paralysis of the true functions of a Legislature or a city council it signifies! Can the man whose eye is on the chance to make a hundred dollars here and five hundred there by selling his vote have his mind on the public interests? If American cities and States have been flagrantly improvident and neglectful, if they have allowed the superiority of our situation to that of the Old World to count for so little, if they have let Hamburg and Berlin do things that Philadelphia and New York might have done ten times more readily, but have not done—how much of this is due to the fact that our city and State legislation has been in the hands of grafters or semi-grafters? The cost of the graft system in the way of direct harm by illegitimate means is as nothing in comparison with these indirect results.



It will be with a sense of personal loss that the news of Myra Kelly's death will be heard by many thousands whom she has delighted and touched by her unique stories of the East Side. In that remarkable output of short stories of high merit and distinctive quality which, for a series of years, formed so notable a feature in our magazine literature, the work of Myra Kelly was clearly differentiated from that of any other writer. Underneath the tricks of East Side Jewish English, and underneath the sustained grotesqueness of character or sentiment or thought displayed by the leading figures in the stories, there ran, all along, a genuine human quality that gave to the whole a place quite other than that which a first glance at the stories would suggest. Not only did Miss Kelly convey a tender sympathy with the little people she portrayed; she made us share with her a feeling for their high qualities of loyalty and aspiration that could have in it nothing of condescension or patronage. By what simple but subtle art she contrived to make such a feeling compatible with whole-hearted laughter at the surprising incongruities and absurdities she was constantly picturing, or even caricaturing, it would be difficult to say; but the effect was there. And the tenderness of feeling she inspired for her little protégés overflowed in her own favor; and many a heart that has been moved by her tales of "Teacher's" adoring pupils will be saddened by the thought that her own fresh young voice is silent.

As though every nation under the sun were not supplied with more than a sufficient quota of war maniacs—jingo politicians, jingo editors, patriotic powder and ammunition salesmen, preachers of race hatred, and ordinary fools whose habit is to cry out aloud for battleships, God, and country—it must needs go searching for additional aid and comfort among the most eminent foreign specialists in blood and thunder. France, as a nation rich in high-powered speculators on world-politics, has been peculiarly active in foreseeing war between the United States and Japan. The latest prophet from Paris is Vice-Admiral Fournier, whose new book fairly palpitates with horror at the imminent danger of a terrible conflict between the two peoples, who are now "actually face to face in the Pacific." Admiral

Fournier is a fellow-countryman of the expert who some time ago had a number of Japanese torpedo-boats make a dash from Yokohama and destroy the American battleship fleet off the coast of Brazil. He recalls, too, that other expert, a German, who represents an American army as landing at Corpus Christi, Texas, in order to take in flank a Japanese army encamped in the neighborhood of Butte, Montana. We greatly fear that if Admiral Fournier, who sees the Japanese and Americans face to face across twelve thousand miles of the Pacific, were to be landed in New York, he would be sauntering out from his hotel the next morning to look for the famous *Peaux-Rouges* who hunt the buffalo in the borough of the Bronx.

If Berlin continues to grow at the present rate it will have 6,450,000 inhabitants in 1950 and 10,000,000 in 2000. Some years ago the local architects looked the situation squarely in the face and concluded that it was sheer folly to let the city keep on growing at random, by the mechanical process of adding one street to another. There should be some general plan, they insisted, in accordance with which the city should be enlarged, a plan which would take into consideration hygienic problems, rapidity and convenience of transportation, and the preservation, as far as possible, of scenic features. Several prizes of from 15,000 to 25,000 marks for the best plans were accordingly offered, and the winners were Professors Genzmer, Brix, and Möhring, and the architect Hermann Jansen. Their suggestions for the Greater Berlin of the future being submitted in printed volumes, with many plans, cannot but prove suggestive in other cities which have an eye to the future. To provide for the needs of the population in the year 2000 is, after all, as one of the prize-winners remarks, to look forward only two generations and not three, as would have been the case not many years ago, when the progress in sanitation had not yet increased the average duration of a lifetime. When will our American cities plan for 1950, to say nothing of 2000?

The recently announced agreement between Russia and Austria in the matter of the Balkans appears to have been no formal agreement upon any definite programme, but a mere resumption of

more or less cordial relations after the frigid year and a half that followed Austria's *coup d'état* in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Both Powers have suddenly recalled that an arrangement for harmonious action in the Balkans, concluded in 1897, is still in force. Whereupon Austria, with a fine touch of humor, has remarked that she had promised to stand by the *status quo* in 1897 and she would stand by the *status quo* in 1910, omitting to mention, however, that between 1897 and 1910 the *status quo* in the Balkans had been greatly changed in circumstances more or less within her control. Russia has consented to make the best of a bad bargain, swallow her resentment, and join hands for the maintenance of the new régime in Turkey and the raising of the Balkan peoples.

The Military League in Greece, which has been in virtual control of public affairs since last summer, has at last carried its main point with the convocation of a National Assembly by royal decree. The tiny kingdom under its military oligarchy has presented a curiously mingled spectacle of the serious and the comic. The motives behind the military uprising were laudable enough. Domestic Greek politics have been, since time immemorial, pitifully corrupt. The rotation system of party-government, by which each party took its turn at the public crib with the consent of the other, was as rife there as it was in its classic home, Portugal. With its slender military resources the country was in no condition to pursue an active foreign policy. The revolution in Turkey acted as a spur on Greek military patriotism. On the one hand, here was the hereditary enemy apparently risen to renewed life and power, and hence a menace to be feared more than ever. On the other hand, the example of Turkey showed what a resolute and patriotic army might do in the way of drastic national housecleaning. The final impulse came when Greece, in the face of Turkish threats, was compelled to surrender or postpone her ambitions with regard to Crete. Last summer's military uprising at Athens was the consequence, and was followed in turn by a succession of ministerial crises, a comic-opera revolt like the recent one of Lieut. Tibaldos, and now the summoning of a constituent assembly.



## NULLIFICATION IN MARYLAND.

The action of the Maryland Legislature in relation to negro disfranchisement is of a character so extraordinary that the country has not yet waked up to its significance. It does not stand in the same class with the disfranchising Constitutions or Constitutional amendments that have heretofore been adopted by Southern States. These amendments were, indeed, substantially nullifications of the Fifteenth Amendment; but the nullification was covered, in point of form, by the device of the "grandfather clause." By these, men were not disfranchised ostensibly on the ground of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude"; the property and education tests applied to all men alike, but the "grandfather clause" admitted persons to the franchise without submission to those tests, and, of course, the benefit of the "grandfather clause" was accessible virtually to white men only. While this was evidently, in substance if not in form, a violation of the Fifteenth Amendment, the Supreme Court has found it possible to avoid making any decision either sustaining or annulling these State enactments. Every case that has been brought before it has been disposed of on some technical or subsidiary point, leaving the merits of the real issue untouched.

The bills that were hurried through both houses of the Maryland Legislature in the closing days of last week bring on a situation in which no such attitude on the part of the Supreme Court will be possible. If the Court did not spontaneously feel that it must stand forth and assert itself when the Constitution of the United States was challenged by undisguised nullification, the force of public sentiment would irresistibly compel it to take cognizance of the issue. These bills, disfranchising the negro as such, are expressly based on the assertion that the Fifteenth Amendment is not valid, or at least is not binding on the State of Maryland. Thus the issue presented is one that transcends any question either of law or of policy affecting simply the rights of the negro. The indifference that has been shown in the North over the denial to the Southern negro of the rights guaranteed to him by the Fifteenth Amendment has been due to the spread of the feeling that the South should be left to solve its own prob-

lems. The inaction of the Supreme Court has reflected that feeling. But now quite a different note has been struck by the anti-negro fanatics of Maryland, and when the country shall have fully realized what that note is, the Maryland leaders may rest assured that the country will be heard from on the subject. The people of the North have not grown so callous or so indifferent that they will permit a precedent like this to be established in silence. They will not submit without a protest to the barefaced nullification of that which was written into the Constitution as a result of the civil war. There can be no doubt that the issue created by the Maryland Democrats will be brought to an actual decision by the Supreme Court, and few men of sense can doubt what that decision will be.

Of course, all this is predicated on the assumption that Gov. Crothers will not withhold his assent from the bills, which were forced through the Legislature by a strict party vote, after their adoption by the Democratic caucus. The Governor himself is in full sympathy with the anti-negro movement, and there is therefore little to hope for in that quarter. And yet there is matter enough to give him pause. So far as we have observed, the entire daily press of Baltimore is opposed to the foolhardy scheme, and many conservative Democrats in that city have protested against it. A resolution denouncing it was adopted by the Methodist ministers at their meeting a few days ago. Far more significant, a number of leading Southern Senators and Representatives have expressed their keen regret at the move, and some of them had previously urged the managers of the Maryland project to drop it. As a legal experiment, it is a wild scheme, doomed to certain failure; as a matter of national politics it is the ugliest manifestation of an anti-national and anti-liberal spirit that has come to the front in many years. The wanton act of the Maryland Democrats promises to lead to a revival of race and sectional antagonisms such as have long been absent from the national stage.

The whole story of the Maryland disfranchising agitation is one that reflects peculiar discredit on the dominant party in that State. Prior to 1895, the government of the State, and of the city of Baltimore, had been held,

for more than twenty years, firmly in the grip of one of the most unscrupulous, as it was one of the most powerful, political rings in the country. In that year, by an alliance between the Republicans and a strong body of independent Democrats, the ring was overthrown. From the possession of the State and city governments by the Republicans in 1896, as the result of the decisive victory of November, 1895, dates the improvement of governmental standards and governmental conditions both at Annapolis and Baltimore. Fair elections had been the cry of the Republicans and independents in 1895; and ideally fair elections were established by the Republicans when they came into power. Yet no sooner had the Democrats regained control than they began to introduce every possible sort of contrivance, in the way of election tricks, to make their tenure unshakable. The negro vote is only one-fifth of the total, but the issue of "white supremacy" has nevertheless been worked in the most frantic manner by the Democratic organization; and this without the possibility of pointing to any evil that has come of the negro vote either in the State government or in that of Baltimore city. In certain counties it must be admitted that there have been complaints, but no sincere and genuine attempt has been made to grapple with any such trouble. Wholesale disfranchising schemes, on the model of the Southern Constitutions, have twice been decisively voted down by the people. And now, instead of accepting this twice-rendered verdict, the successors of the Gorman-Rasin ring, aided by a few sincere but visionary lawyers who may be animated by the spirit of Calhoun, are resorting to this wild scheme. It is not a pretty story, and the only consolation is that this latest chapter looks as if it might be the last.

## TARIFF PEACE WITH CANADA.

Besides averting a tariff war, the settlement with Canada now bears the pleasing character of a possible prelude to establishing reciprocal trade relations between the United States and that country. In paving the way toward so desirable a result. Mr. Taft has performed a notable service. The letters exchanged between Secretary Knox and Finance Minister Fielding, immediately after the adoption of the agreement,

show how strong is the disposition on both sides toward a liberal trade policy in the future. "The agreement," says Mr. Knox, "encourages the hope that the future trade relations of the countries will become even more intimate and expanded, and will be regulated in a spirit of cordial reciprocity and interdependence." And Mr. Fielding, in reply, declares that the Canadian Government "very heartily reciprocate" this sentiment, and "will gladly avail themselves" of the President's invitation to take up, at such time as may be mutually satisfactory, the consideration of a readjustment of the trade relations between the two countries "upon the broader and more liberal lines which should obtain" between them. All this is matter for sincere congratulation, and is very different indeed from what, for a while, seemed the possible outcome.

If the concessions actually obtained from the Canadians are of insignificant magnitude, that fact must be ascribed to the weakness of the position in which we were placed by the maximum-and-minimum feature of the Payne-Aldrich law. It was felt by the Canadians that the threat of the maximum was one that we should not dare to carry out, on account of the injury which such an increase of duties on Canadian products would inflict on our own people. They regarded it as a bluff; and, if they did not actually call the bluff, they came as near doing so as could be done without putting us in a position where we might have been compelled, for the sake of saving our face, to plunge into a tariff war, however little we liked to do so. In replying to questions in the Dominion Parliament, Mr. Fielding stated the case with great frankness. "If we had stood pat, it is possible we might have in some way obtained the minimum American tariff," said Mr. Fielding. But good relations with the United States, he continued, were better than a spectacular triumph. "If we could avoid a tariff war by granting some, and from our point of view not very important, concessions, it was far better in the interest of Canada for the present and the future that we should make the concessions rather than to triumph over the United States on terms which would have left soreness and ill-feeling and created friction in future negotiations." A remark made by Sir

Wilfrid Laurier, the Canadian Premier, is also highly interesting. While appreciating the strong sentiment in this country adverse to a tariff war with Canada, he also recognized the fact that there is in the United States a high protectionist group, which is willing and anxious to push the President into such a contest. "The Canadian Government did not feel," said the Premier, "that it should give its aid to further the ends of this group by making impossible conditions for the President."

It is unnecessary here to enter minutely into the actual concessions that were sought, and the concessions that were made. They bring up the old story of the "most favored nation" question. On a certain list of articles, France had secured from Canada reductions of from 2½ to 5 per cent., in return for equivalent concessions on her own part; and these concessions were automatically extended to thirteen other nations under the most-favored-nation clause in their treaties. We had made no treaty concessions to Canada, and the concessions to France were not, therefore, regarded by Mr. Taft as constituting "undue discrimination" against the United States; but the same concessions, extended to other countries entitled, under their treaties, to most-favored-nation treatment, did seem to him to justify the charge of discrimination against us. The logic or metaphysics of this position is ticklish; but the knot was cut by the homely process of splitting the difference. The difference, to be sure, does not seem to have been split anywhere near the middle; we get the "intermediate" rate on thirteen items, out of the forty originally in question. The quantity of our exports to Canada affected by this reduction of 2½ per cent. ad valorem is about \$5,000,000 out of a total of about \$180,000,000. But it is stated that these articles on which the concession is granted comprise virtually all the commodities in which there is competition between the United States and the favored nations; and on this principle the selection was made.

Satisfactory as it is to have the difficulty decently settled, and gratifying as is the fact that what started as a wrangle has ended in a prospect of liberal relations between the two countries, one cannot avoid feeling the pettiness of these higgings between two enlightened and large-minded peoples. The matters

involved are undoubtedly important to particular business interests, and it is to the credit of either government that painstaking care is bestowed on the safeguarding of those interests, so far as they are legitimate; but, after all, it is right that we should take also a broader view. Think of all the higgling, and all the diplomacy, and all the anxiety over political and commercial consequences; and then consider that what we have got out of it is two and a half per cent. on five million dollars in the total amount of duty to be paid on imports into Canada from the United States—a reduction of \$125,000 a year! The want of perspective that is so characteristic in the whole domain of foreign trade is nowhere more in evidence than in these tariff wrangles. The exaggeration of their importance, the factitious dignity and consequence they are by common consent allowed to assume, are of a piece with the readiness which people show, the world over, to accept at their own valuation the inflated claims of commercial jingoes as to the momentous importance of this or that bit of foreign trade, the world-shaking significance of this or that petty obstacle to its development. If an instinctive questioning of the magnitude of the matters involved were to become habitual, most tariff wars would be laughed out of court, and most threats of war by flood and field for the sake of commerce would be treated with the contempt they deserve.

#### THE CONSTITUTIONAL STRUGGLE IN ENGLAND.

The debate on the question of the Lords in the House of Commons has confirmed the feeling that a contest of great depth and intensity is before the people of England. Mr. Asquith, in his opening speech, seems to have made no concession to that sentiment of conservatism to which Lord Rosebery's resolutions, almost unanimously adopted by the House of Lords, make their appeal. The position laid down in the Premier's motion and supported by his speech was aggressively challenged by the leader of the Opposition. A notable utterance of Mr. Balfour's was that in which he declared the existence of the House of Lords more than ever necessary now, when "modern radicalism" has revolutionary ideals and aims upon



which the people should be consulted before their final adoption." Between this position and that asserted by Mr. Asquith, when he said that the "absolute veto" of the Lords must be abolished in order that the road may be cleared for the advent of "a full-grown and unfettered democracy," lies the antithesis upon which the vital thought of the country must be centred.

If the question thus presented were bound up with the House of Lords as at present constituted, there could be little doubt of the result; but it is not on this line that the issue is being joined. Not only from the standpoint of democracy, but from the standpoint of efficacy for its own function of conservatism, the House of Lords has at last reached the point where its inappropriateness and shortcomings are universally recognized as calling for far-reaching reforms. The democratic sentiment of the time will not much longer endure the possession by a purely hereditary body of power so substantial as that which the peers now exercise; and, on the other hand, it is seen that a body whose tenure of power rests on so uncertain a basis, a body so subject to subversive agitation, cannot exercise its function with real independence; except in cases of the most extreme kind, it is ready to sacrifice its judgment rather than run the risk of a collision. In this situation, two proposals of opposite character are presented to the consideration of the people. On the part of the Liberals, the country is asked to leave the composition of the House of Lords—at least for the present—unaltered, but to reduce its power to something approaching insignificance; whereas the Conservatives propose to improve the composition of the body by some as yet undefined method which abandons the unqualified principle of heredity, and thereby to make it a more vigorous and more potent Second Chamber. If this plan should be matured in a wise and far-seeing manner, it will make a strong appeal to the conservative instincts of the people of England. As between a reformed and strengthened House of Lords, exercising the function of a check on the House of Commons without being overwhelmingly representative of the landed interests and of one political party, and a House of Lords unreformed but almost impotent, no one can say how many thoughtful Lib-

erals may choose the former alternative.

To Americans, Mr. Asquith's appeal to the idea of a "full-grown and unfettered democracy" may seem to be essentially a call to England to adopt the system obtaining in our own country. But to give the House of Commons almost unchecked predominance, as Mr. Asquith's resolutions propose, would be to introduce a system profoundly different from that in America. Nor is it the existence of the Senate in which that difference lies, for the Senate is, after all, in the main, only a more slowly moving body of representatives; any strong popular movement, sustained for the space of two or three years, is capable of sweeping the Senate, as well as the House and the Presidency, along with it. It is our written Constitution, with its Supreme Court endowed by the Constitution with unparalleled powers in the annulling of legislation, and with its division of authority between the States and the Federal Government, that stands in this country as the great check upon a "full-grown and unfettered democracy." If, indeed, the House of Lords had in practice the "absolute veto" which it has theoretically, and which Mr. Asquith declares it his purpose to abolish, it would, of course, be a more effective barrier against an unrestrained democracy than is our written Constitution; but the unwritten Constitution of England has long reduced the function of the House of Lords to the staying of legislation until the will of the people has been uttered with what all men feel to be unmistakable authority. That, to be sure, is a very great power; but it is not in any true sense an "absolute veto," and it is in many directions not as substantial a barrier to radical change as is our own Constitution. The example of America cannot, therefore, be cited in favor of the emasculation, though it may be invoked in favor of the better lodgment, of the functions of the Second Chamber.

With so fundamental an issue at stake, it must be deplored by all right-minded men, whatever their standpoint, that the parliamentary system offers no guarantee that the question will come before the people for a clear decision on its merits. An inestimable service would be rendered to the cause of parliamentary government if leaders on both sides were to forego all the other questions between the parties and stake

the coming election on this great question alone. It has no connection whatsoever with that other great question, of free trade against protection, which was probably the leading factor in the recent electoral contest; and as for Irish Home Rule, that will take care of itself, because the Irish will vote virtually as a unit against the House of Lords, whether Home Rule is or is not explicitly brought into the canvass. If an understanding could be established that the new House of Commons would not deal with the free-trade question, and that the verdict of the people, whichever way it went, would not be regarded as signifying any preference on this head, a contest could be carried on whose character was worthy of the great question at issue, and whose result might be looked forward to as the true judgment of the nation.

#### CORPORATIONS AND CONSCIENCE.

Of the making of many problems nowadays there is no end. And of the magnifying of those problems that we have ready-made there is an abundance. In the leading article of the current number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, Mr. Joseph B. Ross discusses seriously and learnedly "The Attitude of Private Conscience Toward Corporate Right." With the natural instinct of the specialist he endeavors by delving far beneath the surface to find the explanation of certain familiar experiences. "The cause," he tells us, "of the misunderstanding and of the consequent antagonism between the industrial or commercial corporation and the public lies very largely in a failure to realize what the corporation actually is." And again: "It seems rather anomalous and difficult of comprehension that a form of industrial organization which universally commends itself to the business world should yet be visited with marked popular opprobrium." Mr. Ross ascribes to the average man a feeling of mystification due to legal elements in the status of the corporation which he knows to be something in the nature of privilege, but of which he can clearly make out neither the basis nor the nature. Of such elements Mr. Ross enumerates many: for instance, "the State has made it possible for the corporation to repudiate its debts by pleading its limited capital stock and the statutory lia-



bility of its stockholders." And in conclusion he declares that "undoubtedly the causes of the misapprehension and of the deep-seated antagonism between American laymen and the private corporation, its directors and its stockholders, lie in the enigmatical personality of the corporation—a personality certainly existing, but not yet arrived at a maturity of its powers nor aware of its profound social obligations."

But, after all is said and done, we do not seem to have got much further than the plain man gets when he harks back to that old dictum of Lord Thurlow's, that a corporation has neither a body to be kicked nor a soul to be damned. And indeed not so far. For, since Lord Thurlow's time, we have advanced a long distance toward the kicking of corporations; and, at the same time, the vast spread of the system over the industrial and commercial world has resulted not in strengthening but in greatly weakening animosity against corporations as such. While there may be a certain mild recognition of the difference in responsibility and responsiveness between a corporation and an individual or a firm, it is doubtful whether one man in a hundred is perceptibly influenced by it either in his sentiment or in his conduct. It is not corporations in general, but two special kinds of corporations against which popular prejudice is arrayed and towards which many individuals feel themselves absolved from the ordinary obligations of conscience. These are public service corporations and corporations which are or are supposed to be of a monopolistic character. And in these cases the reasons for this hostile, or even this unscrupulous, attitude are not far to seek. In the matter of monopoly, the thing speaks for itself; in the case of the public service corporations, we have, in addition to the anti-monopoly sentiment, the feeling, whether well-founded or not, that by illegitimate means they have obtained privileges burdensome to the public. To see how little the idea of the corporation in itself has to do with the matter, one has only to imagine the street railways of New York to have always belonged to Mr. Belmont personally, or the Standard Oil to have been created and owned by Mr. John D. Rockefeller alone. Does any one suppose that public feeling towards either of these establishments would have been more gen-

tle, or that people would harbor any greater sense of obligation to treat them with scrupulous regard for their legal rights?

Of course, the impersonality—partly real and partly apparent—of the corporation does make a great difference in the strictly human side of many relations with it; but this difference is inevitable from the nature of the case, and we shall never by taking thought get rid of it. It is quite as important to avoid exaggeration of the effect of this circumstance as it is to recognize its existence. Against a corporation as such, a corporation not identified either with the idea of oppressive monopolistic practices or with that of special privileges, the average man neither entertains hatred nor exercises unfairness. Almost every instance of such conduct towards corporations cited by Mr. Ross could easily be matched in parallel cases where the party concerned was an individual and not a corporation. Even such an example as the eager rush for railway passes—in the days before the recent anti-pass legislation—is much more readily explained by a simple weakness of human nature or a defect in common honesty than by any peculiar state of mind arising out of the mysterious nature of the corporate entity. No one ever heard of people being shy about getting theatre passes, even before the days of the Theatre Trust; the automatic instinct for getting, or seeming to get, something for nothing is amusingly illustrated in the rush for ice cream and salads at every social gathering; and as for deception, it is only necessary to ask any unincorporated doctor how many otherwise respectable persons resort to queer devices in order to get medical services for little or nothing.

Finally, as to the necessity that the corporation shall become "aware of its profound social obligations" as a condition precedent to receiving fair and decent treatment from the average man. In regard to all this class of considerations, we are both more and less sanguine than those who constantly hold up to our view these high and distant ideals. It will be long before the recognition of "profound social obligations" becomes the dominant factor in the conduct of either corporations or individuals—unless, indeed, by profound social obligations is meant those profoundest

obligations of all, which are as old as civilized history. The homely but faithful performance of the plain duty not to steal, not to lie, not to cheat; the recognition of the simple claims of human beings to that ordinary consideration which stays the hand of the strong from merciless destruction of the weak—these obligations, indeed, it is the immediate duty of corporations to observe. Many corporations have always observed them; the number of those that do not is, we are sure, destined rapidly to grow less since the public conscience has become awakened. Let us demand of them that simple righteousness which all men recognize as duty, and the absence of which all men recognize as wickedness. Then, for the beautiful state of the future we can afford to wait with patience.

#### GREAT BRITAIN IN EGYPT.

The protest issued by the Young Egypt Committee at Geneva against Mr. Roosevelt's pro-English address before the students of the University of Cairo fell into serious error. That distinguished traveller was actuated in his remarks by no desire to please his official hosts. It is doing him a wrong to imagine that he would sacrifice his convictions to curry favor with anybody. In the present instance it was almost inevitable that he should have assumed the position he did. He found in Egypt a people on a somewhat backward cultural plane, ruled by a handful of strong white men. He saw there the far-famed efficiency of British administration brought to probably its highest pitch. The British rulers in Egypt are men who do things and get results. Under them the country has made unquestioned material progress. Here, then, was the white man's burden carried along strenuously, successfully, and, on the whole, quietly too, if it were not for the clamor of a few malcontents who would have self-government, and Egypt for the Egyptians, and a good many other wild things. Could these so-called Nationalist agitators promise Egypt as efficient a government as England has given her these last twenty-five years and more? No. Then the question was settled for Mr. Roosevelt. On the same grounds that he lauded the British rule in India when he was still President, he bestowed his approval upon British rule in Egypt.

And in India and Egypt both, the British have been facing the same problem ever since the Russo-Japanese war gave birth to new hopes among the subject races. Great Britain, like many a conquering people before her, finds it hard to understand why the nations to whom she has brought peace and material well-being should chafe under her rule. It is well enough for the island-born Englishman to insist on taking care of himself, even if he does it badly, rather than have things carefully smoothed out for him from above. It is absurd for the Bengali or the Egyptian Nationalist to assume the same attitude; first, because, in his case, it has been demonstrated that he is unfit to take care of himself, and secondly—and the argument is legitimate enough—failure in his case would also spell trouble and worse for Great Britain herself, and for the world at large. In India, for instance, the British assert that they have brought order and stability where formerly there was civil war and oppression. Let Great Britain withdraw, and India would become a cockpit for its own hostile races and religions and a prey to Russian or Japanese or German ambition—who knows? Can a handful of Babu lawyers hold together an empire of 300,000,000 people?

But as between Egypt and India there are certain important differences which give the former country much the stronger case against Great Britain. And this in spite of the fact that Egypt, unlike India, cannot deny that British rule has brought prosperity to the country. Egypt has no devastating plagues and famines to complain of. Her population has nearly doubled since 1882, and the national wealth has more than kept pace with the population. The primary reason for discontent is, therefore, apparently absent, until we recall that it is comparative prosperity, and not helplessness, that nourishes political unrest. The very fact that Egypt is prosperous offers a powerful reason why England cannot hope to keep it permanently in subjection. But more important still is the absence in Egypt of those racial and religious divergences in which England finds the chief need for her presence in India. Of Egypt's nearly 12,000,000 people, less than a million are Christian and Jewish. Over 92 per cent. of the population is Mohammedan, the very class which England

regards as constituting the most peaceful, the most industrious, and altogether the most promising element in India. In Egypt, therefore, there can be no question of racial or religious warfare. The population is homogeneous, compact, and not so numerous as to make self-government the momentous task it must be in India.

The reasons for Egyptian Nationalism are, clearly, far from negligible. England's presence in Egypt cannot be explained as due to the people's incapacity for self-government. It was not civil war or any other form of popular misdemeanor that first brought England into the land, but the insane financial extravagances of a Khedive who virtually delivered his country into the hands of his foreign creditors. The revolt of Arabi Pasha in 1882 was a protest against foreign domination, and England's subsequent intervention was dictated solely by her interests as part holder of the foreign debt and as owner of the Suez Canal. If the temporary British occupation has become permanent, it is not primarily because the welfare of the country required it, but because British Imperial policy demanded it. The fact that the Khedives Ismail and Tewfik brought Egypt under foreign domination does not prove that the people itself is unfit to be entrusted with a large measure of self-government. That is what the Egyptian Nationalists maintain, and they have the recent experience of Turkey to hearten them.

#### CONFESSIONS OF A PROFESSOR.

While our colleges of liberal arts are groaning with their regrets, their misgivings, and their sins, Prof. Grant Showerman has seen and stepped into an opportunity. In a book of essays, entitled "With the Professor," he attempts, with a limpidity of style and a gentle temperance recalling the Elia of Cambridge, Mass., to relieve the stuffed bosom of higher education by ingenuously revealing to the world the present sensitive and uneasy state of the professorial mind, its inner conflicts, and its discordant environment. For a confessional medium he has created, after the fashion of one of Anatole France's innocent sages, a bald-headed teacher of the classics with an aspiring wife and six children. (That "six" is a rather unrealistic touch.) In the course of his

lucubrations this very typical academic gentleman pretty nearly exhausts the stock topics of academic society: salaries, receptions, cost of living, merits of teachers, research, and educational policy. Readers in university communities, East and West, will find themselves testifying to his representativeness by exclaiming "That's our college through and through," "That's I" or "me"—according to their grammatical faith.

But to represent things from certain points of view is to satirize them; by virtue of his humanistic standpoint "the Professor" is a satirist. In these days of universal elective franchise no one knows the object of education; the object of educators, however, or, more accurately speaking, of their wives and daughters—is "getting on." The driving power is not the desire to learn and teach, but a desperate ambition to gain and maintain a footing on a \$2,000 salary in a society where the average income is three or four times as great. The rising young instructor, therefore, is compelled to be a hypocrite. He must devote his energy to doing things in which he does not believe—writing articles on "Terminations in T" and "Suffixes in S"—in order to win the hollow approbation of the learned, which leads to promotion. "The Professor" entertains a rather undignified conception of the function of the various scientific and philological journals. He is so cynical as to suggest that contributors should be obliged to pay regular advertising rates. One does not like to think that there is any occasion for such stringent measures. Yet of a piece with this insinuation of commercialism in the studious cloister is the satirical rogue's description of an elaborate university social function, in preparing for, going through, and getting over which some ten hours are consumed by the instructor and his wife, with a net result of ten minutes of social intercourse. This agony, too, like the barren sweat of "research," is a propitiatory offering to the God of Getting On. The cure for these evils is easy to prescribe and "pleasant to take"—\$15,000 a year.

Behind the satirist, however, is a dismayed and bewildered believer in humane culture—the pensive and melancholy Oasian of contemporary education. He stands by the graves of Homer and Virgil, and mourns for the



bygone days. Since the great educational revolution and the irruption into the colleges of the Third Estate, he has witnessed the defeat, demoralization, and dispersal of the intellectual nobility. A new and alien order of mechanics, engineers, business men, farmers, linguistic cranks, and scientific pedants possesses the field. Their means are not his means, nor their ends his ends. He is among them but not of them; he moves with them, but keeps step to another drummer. He is something of a sentimentalist: he expresses his dissent with the sound of a harp, when the crisis calls for a trumpet. In his ability to excite sympathy with his ideals and in his inability to suggest or institute practical reforms—in his quite resourceless idealism—Professor Showerman's "Professor" fairly symbolizes the faculty of liberal arts in a large university.

"The Professor," like many contemporary humanists, imagines that his melancholy arises from his recollection of the old régime. As a matter of fact, it arises from his ignorance of the history of education. Hearing him talk, one would be led to suspect that in the good old times before President Eliot students were fired with an inhuman love of liberal culture for its own sake. As a matter of fact, Ascham and Peacham and Milton and Locke and Chesterfield advocated a liberal education primarily because it was the most valuable and practical training for a liberal career. The scholar-gentleman contemplated in the aristocratic classical curriculum was destined for activities calling constantly into play both gentlemanliness and scholarship. He was destined for a part in good society and a part in public life; for these definite ends he was supplied with ancient and modern languages, ancient and modern history, philosophy, logic, rhetoric, etiquette, and the graces. There was a clearly shaped educational policy, because there was a clearly conceived educational object. "The Professor" is in despair, because he feels a hopeless and entirely untraditional desire to transform all students into scholars and gentlemen—a desire which Burke would have told him is at war with nature.

"The Professor" has a very pretty chapter in which he rejoices that the pursuit of culture is his means of livelihood. To put it in brutal English—

he needs languages, literatures, history, philosophy, rhetoric, etiquette, and the graces in *his business*. But the teacher of classics is not unique in needing these things. They are needed also by men of letters and teachers and critics of literature, by historians and philosophers and teachers of philosophy and history, by editors, publishers, clergymen, college presidents, diplomats, and statesmen. For these classes, at least, a liberal culture is the most definite kind of training for "success in life." In this age of intolerance for purposeless and indolent Goodness and Beauty, perhaps the hope of future usefulness for the college of liberal arts lies in frank competition with its rivals not for the women and weaker brethren, but for the young men of ambition and promise, desiring to qualify themselves for the careers—more numerous now than ever before—open to liberal scholars and gentlemen. If it would but condescend to inscribe over its portals, "We, too, train for life," it could reduce the chaos of election, form an educational policy, give what is now demanded of every college, and at the same time gain what it privately desires.

#### THE GREEK GIFT TO CIVILIZATION.

##### I.

The Greeks meant one thing to men of the early Renaissance, another thing to Pope and Addison, another thing to Germans of the nineteenth century. Every generation has taken its Greek in its own way. And the present generation, heir of all the ages, is taking its Greek in nearly every way—except one. It is *not* taking its Greek for granted. An expositor of Hellenism to-day is almost obliged to become an apologist. He must "show us." Even as seasoned a Grecian as Professor Mahaffy,\* who surely is entitled, if any one is, to be at his ease in Hellas, does not resist this compulsion. The quiet and still air of his delightful studies is stirred with argument, about Greek in the college curriculum, about the neglect of Aristotelian logic by American youth, about, on the one hand, Greek *versus* "Science," and, on the other hand, the truly "scientific" temper of Greek thought. Throughout he seems to feel that the Greeks need to be vindicated; and their vindication, throughout, is that they are "modern."

\*"What Have the Greeks Done for Modern Civilization?" The Lowell Lectures of 1908-09. By John Pentland Mahaffy, C.V.O., D.C.L. (Oxon.), etc., of Trinity College, Dublin. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.50 net.

This seems to mean that they are free from mysticism and obscurantism, those sins of the Middle Ages; and Professor Mahaffy is the more inclined to praise Greek clear-sightedness in virtue of his own long-standing feud with medievalism. There is a fine old-fashioned flavor, as of some clergyman in Thomas Love Peacock—a Ffolliott, a Portpipe, an Opimian—in the valiant no-Popery flings of our author against the church and against the theological prepossessions of mediæval science and philosophy. The modern contentiousness about Greek here receives a temperamental reinforcement.

All good things being Greek, and all bad things non-Greek, the Middle Ages were non-Greek; and the Renaissance, which put an end to them, was Greek. Such seems to be the latent reasoning at the bottom of Professor Mahaffy's view—and we admit it to be the popular view—that by means of a resurgence of Greek art, literature, and philosophy, the Renaissance superseded the Middle Ages, and that the Renaissance was in spirit and accomplishment truly Greek, truly classical. The naïve assumption of the humanists that they had emerged from a "thick Gothic night," Professor Mahaffy would modify by substituting "Latin" for "Gothic"; and, having thus given a bad name to the Scholastic Philosophy, to Romanesque and Gothic architecture, to the "Dies Iræ" and to the *chansons de geste*, he would contentedly hang them all. Now, he believes, upon the thick Latin night up rose Greek, and up rose the sun: the classical Renaissance and the "modern spirit" were a twin birth of the revival of Greek studies (pp. 18-19). This view seems to us erroneous; and, as the conceptions underlying it determine Professor Mahaffy's treatment of his subject, we shall examine it at some length. Waiving all questions of chronology, disregarding therefore all mediæval anticipations of the Renaissance or of the "modern spirit," granting that the light did not dawn till Greek began to reappear, and then dawned decisively, we believe it would not be difficult to show that the Renaissance itself was not essentially Hellenic.

##### II.

The literature of the Renaissance, both in and out of Italy, is four-fifths of it Latinistic—Virgilian, Ciceronian, Senecan, occasionally Horatian, very heavily Ovidian. It springs not immediately, often not mediately, from Homer, Demosthenes, Pindar, Æschylus, Sophocles, or even Euripides. The other fifth, which does draw nourishment from Greek literature, draws it from the Greek literature not of the golden but of the silver and the pinchbeck ages. Boccaccio, Professor Mahaffy points out (p. 95n), is indebted to Greek prose fiction; but what he does not point out is that Boccaccio's debt



runs mostly to very late Byzantine romances now lost. Lyly draws from Plutarch on Education. Sannazaro breaks from the Virgilian pastoral tradition to return to Theocritus. Tasso's "Aminta," as is well known, gets what is probably its most famous passage from the late prose romance of Achilles Tatius. As is not so well known, the "Jerusalem Delivered," too, professedly a restoration of the classical—that is, the Virgilian—epic, in reprobation of the composite romance-epic of Pulci, Bolardo, and Ariosto, is itself full of the conceits of late Greek rhetoric. The "Pastor Fido" is based upon a story in Pausanias. It seems well within the truth to say that where Renaissance literature is Greek at all, it is almost certain to be in the Alexandrianized, Romanized, Byzantinized, and Orientalized vein that we call Greek only because we have no better name for it.

The art and the philosophy of the Renaissance, like its literature, do not draw from pure Hellenic fountains. Botticelli, Raphael, and Titian are not inspired by Greek statuary of the best period, very little of which had been unearthed; Greek painting was probably unknown to them, and, at any rate, Greek painting, as far as it has survived at all, is of the Campanian, the Alexandrian style—distinctly post-classical. The *putti* of the Renaissance may, indeed, it is thought, be traced to the "Egyptian plague of Loves"—those Cupids, which, whether attendant upon the amorous adventures of the gods, or nesting in trees, or wreathing garlands, or exposed in cages for sale, "flutter through the Pompeian pictures." And where the great painters of the Renaissance thought of themselves as illustrators of "literary" themes (we are just rediscovering how decidedly they did so think of themselves—to the confusion of "Art for Art's sake"), they looked for their themes not in Homer, or the tragedians, or the myths of Plato, but in Ovid, or Apuleius, or Philostratus, or Lucian. Raphael's frescoes in the Farnesina got their Olympians not from Hesiod but from Apuleius. Botticelli's Calunnia, as Professor Mahaffy mentions elsewhere, is derived from Lucian's description of the *Assault* of Apelles. Mantegna, Titian, Raphael, Giulio Romano, and others deliberately retranslated into color and visual form the verbal descriptions by Philostratus of paintings in a supposed picture-gallery.

As for the Platonism of the Renaissance, that too was composite, with its leaning toward pseudo-Dionysian hierarchies and toward elaborate theories of love. It was the Platonism of Plotinus, rather, after the school of Alexandria; for, in spite of Ficino's translation, the Platonism of Athens was to them unknown—or, when known, too purely Attic to be assimilated. There was, indeed, an echo of pre-Socratic Greek thought in

the animistic philosophies of Southern Italy; but these Professor Mahaffy does not mention, despite their influence upon Bacon by way of Telesio and Campanella.

In general, Renaissance taste is distinctly unclassical. It runs to digression and irrelevancy; to inserted descriptions and episodes; to huge verbosity. It revels in the "word-paintings" (*leghere*) which were a specialty of the late sophists and rhetoricians; it never tires of their speechmaking. It favors whole bookfuls of orations invented as patterns of the kind of thing that might be said upon a given occasion by persons imaginary, mythological, or historical. These *hypocritici* and *peletrici* bulk large in the Anthology, and reappear in collections like "Silvayn's Orator"—to mention, perhaps, the most familiar name among many. The prose of the Renaissance, again, like late Greek prose, tends, without resistance, to the most exaggerated conceits and antitheses, each country in Europe developing its own particular brands of bad taste—Euphuism, Gongorism, Marinism, and the rest—upon a common basis of Ciceronian and late Greek rhetoric. In imitation, too, of the *tour de force* of degenerate Greek and Roman rhetoricians, the versifiers of the Renaissance often chose the most trivial themes, and embellished them with all the graces of *double entendre*. To match the antique disquisitions Of Long Hair, and in Praise of Baldness, we have the *capitoli* of Berni and his school on Figs, Beans, Sausages, Bakers' Ovens, Hard-Bolled Eggs, Chestnuts, Paint-Brushes, Bells, Needles, Goling Without Hats, and Lying Late A-bed. It is a far cry from this sort of thing to Homer or to the Periclean age. Indeed, if by Greek we mean "classic," the Renaissance was not Greek. Not until the late eighteenth century, after the way had been cleared by those "pedants," German and other, to whom this work alludes so slightly, was the true Renaissance of classic Greek accomplished; only then may the modern world be said to have entered fully upon its Greek heritage. What the Renaissance of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries achieved was rather a Pan-Latinistic revival, which attended especially to the process of recasting and enriching the vernacular tongues, mostly by means of Latin or post-classical Greek models, into vehicles of a modern *Eloquentia* that might rival the antique. Its degenerate models, together with its own taste in choosing them, made it not pure, reposeful, imaginative, but composite, unquiet, fantastic, rhetorical, loquacious—all that is suggested when we say "Alexandrian."

### III.

One cannot help feeling that Professor Mahaffy's taste in these matters has been "subdued to what it works in"

by his extensive studies of post-classical Greek. This bias appears in the estimate of Aristotle's "Poetics" and the dicta about Wordsworth, Tennyson, and others. The "Poetics" is treated as if it were merely a collection of judgments upon individual works in Greek literature: if these judgments are erroneous, the work is a failure, of course. It is not perceived, apparently, that the "Poetics" is an exposition of basic principles, the principles of poetry and of art in general; and that, in its justification of poetry as an imaginative embodiment of the *universal* (a view which Plato, for all his poetry, completely missed), and in its promulgation of the law of unity, it laid sure foundations for the criticism of all time, and established an unassailable canon of classic or ideal art. All this apart from the historical importance of the "Poetics" misunderstood—apart from the pseudo-classic of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, apart from the controversies about "imitation," *catharsis*, and the "three unities." Of this really fundamental book Professor Mahaffy says (p. 62): "I know of no poorer and more jejune exposition of a great subject"; and on the next page he cavalierly dismisses it upon the plea of lack of time. The same want of appreciation of the universal in Hellenism is responsible for some of the opinions here expressed upon the Greek in modern English poetry. Of the "galaxy that illumined the early nineteenth century," Wordsworth is considered to be "the least Greek" (pp. 56-7); and this because of his failure to distinguish prose diction from poetical, and because of the inordinate length of the "Excursion." Keats, however, had caught the Greek spirit, though at second or third hand (p. 46); in Shelley, "we have that perfect combination of romantic imagination with Greek culture" which makes him the greatest of this group (p. 56); and Tennyson is "the most classical of our modern lyric poets" (p. 59).

Read in view of the critic's Alexandrian bias and of the quotations which illustrate his criticism, these dicta become plain. Keats is Greek in being a master of isolated sensuous images, chaste or voluptuous—not in virtue of his delicacy in selection or his passion for beauty; certainly not in virtue of that architectonic which he never possessed. Shelley's "clouds and sunsets" and spirits and flower-bells and pavilions—the imagery of romanticism—are at the service of his revolt and of his love of Greece and liberty. What matter that Shelley hardly touched human experience, hardly touched the general life of man? The case is still clearer when we come to Wordsworth and Tennyson. Of Wordsworth's purity and wisdom—of his *universality*, and of his

"plain and noble" style—of all that makes him a true classic, a true Greek despite his recurrent prosiness—there is not a word; though, of course, the specific Platonism in Wordsworth's wonderful Ode (misquoted at p. 243) is recognized. But what of "Laodameia"?—

For the gods approve  
The depth, and not the tumult, of the soul.  
What of "Dion"?—

So were the hopeless troubles, that involved  
The soul of Dion, instantly dissolved.

Him, only him, the shield of Jove defends,  
Whose means are fair and spotless as his ends.

Or—to take Wordsworth not on classical ground, and in a vein not sententious—what can be more Greek than those autochthonous figures of the Leech-Gatherer, and of Michael at the unfinished sheepfold?—

'Tis believed by all  
That many and many a day he thither went,  
And never lifted up a single stone;  
or this about Michael's wife:

Whose heart was in her house: two wheels  
she had  
Of antique form, this large for spinning  
wool,  
That small for flax; and if one wheel had  
rest,  
It was because the other was at work.

—lines of which Homer would not need to be ashamed. One might as well say that Millet's Sower is not Greek, or that Lincoln's speech at Gettysburg is not Greek—Greek as Simonides! Finally the Hellenism of Tennyson is here supposed to be shown by the "Lotos Eaters" and the Theocritean "Come down, O maid," and that well-nigh intolerable piece of oxymoron and antithesis,

His honor rooted in dishonor stood,  
And faith unfaithful kept him falsely true.

So much of Tennyson's work is Greek in a very pure sense that it seems a pity to try to prove him Hellenic by what at best can prove him only Alexandrian.

#### IV.

While professing to deal with Hellenism in the modern world, the present volume gives much space to an examination of its remote origins, under the various aspects of race, poetry, prose, philosophy, and the like. To us this seems irrelevant; what we ought to be concerned with here is issues, not origins. We have already adverted, perhaps more than enough, to the treatment of the Greek decadence as if that were the essentially Greek. Both ways attention is too much drawn from the centre to the ends, and not fixed, as in so short a work it ought to be fixed, upon that definite period during which the Greeks were most themselves. We want a focus; and we have here a penumbra. Are we demanding too nar-

row a canon of Hellenism? We think not; for it is only a strict sense of what the Greeks stood for that gives weight and value to assertions about their influence. That which they really contributed to modern civilization is obfuscated by inquiries into their origins, hardly less than by the inclusion of their decadence upon the same footing with their prime.

But one begins to realize after a while that the author is scarcely appreciative of the characteristic *universality* of the Greeks; that what appeals to him is rather their rhetoric than their idealism, rather their fancy than their imagination, rather their cleverness than their genius. He himself steadfastly declines to generalize—and who could more safely generalize than he?—about the nature of the Greek gift to civilization. He refuses to grasp *this* universal. Surely he sees it; he presents abundant material for the induction; why will he not, for the real illumination of his readers, tell them what he sees? He will make no synthesis. He resides in detail, detail which, as has been seen, too often concerns irrelevant beginnings or degenerate endings; and he yields now and again to the temptation to digress and to argue, like any Alexandrian of them all. In a word, this book about the Greeks is not written in the spirit of the Greeks.

Some merits it undoubtedly possesses. Its dedication, its close, are noble in feeling. Its chapter on politics is vital with modern instances: the abdication of power by an aristocracy, exemplified by Ireland; the conflict of centralizing with decentralizing forces in a federation, exemplified by the United States. And as Professor Mahaffy's venerable experience justifies him in coming to us to admonish and to warn, he speaks, in the same chapter, words of weight upon the failure of intellectual refinement to guard against political decadence, and upon the decay of the middle classes through limitation of the size of the family as a result of heightened cost of living—troubles which threatened Athens no less than they threaten us today. Here Professor Mahaffy might say with Whistler: "I am not arguing; I am telling you." In passages of such "timely" purport, intensified as they often are by the author's personal feelings and experience, this book is at its best. Compared with the works of other writers in the same field, it seems to us inferior, say, to Professor Butcher's "Some Aspects of the Greek Genius" and "Harvard Lectures on Greek Subjects," and to Mr. Lowes Dickinson's "The Greek View of Life"; the first two full of safe generalizations amply supported by specific facts, the last, by its admirable coherence and exquisite employment of transition recalling the prose of Plato himself. Yet, despite these, and despite Professor Sandys's

"History of Classical Scholarship," the true history of the Greek element in modern civilization—of its varying acceptance by different peoples and ages, of its varying combinations with national spirit and with *Zeitgeist*, and of the varying outcome—remains still to be written: *valde desideranda*.

May we, without attempting any part of such a history, be permitted to suggest the generalization that this book withholds?

#### V.

The Greeks, more than all other peoples before or since, believed in the power of mind, and practised their belief. Applying mind to the raw material of sensation, they turned experience into wisdom, fact into truth, the Many into the One, chaos into law, the particular and provincial into the ideal and the universal. But they were not content to rest in this supersensible region: they reëmbodied their ideals in noble sensuous and intellectual forms, which they chose from amid a welter of forms possible but ignoble or insignificant, and which therefore have appealed to mankind *semper, ubique*. So that, whether in the subtle curves of a building, or in the proportions of a statue, or in the shape of a vase, or in the notes of the musical scale, or in finding how the human mind, out of an infinite number of ways in which it can work, actually does work towards truth; whether in art, or letters, or logic, or science, or a hundred other departments of human activity, we still perceive that they have performed for mankind, once for all, the labor of *selection*. It is impossible to overestimate this accomplishment in the racial economy, just as it is impossible to overestimate the specific nobility and loftiness of the ideal heritage they have left to the race.

Those who follow the Greek ways, and, without limiting themselves to old experience, fearlessly, and with confidence in the power of mind, push into the new data of modern life along the path that has proved possible—these are the pioneers; these are subduing chaos and bringing it province by province under the rule of spirit. Those who, refusing to profit by the Greek economy, try old failures again in ignorance or from choice, throw away their heritage. It is only by accident that they may happen upon some worthy thing. Their aberration, generally speaking, takes either or both of two forms, according as they fail to value one or another phase of the Greek accomplishment. Either they deny the validity of the results achieved by selection, and still fancy that "the world is all before them where to choose"; or they deny the right of mind to work selectively at all upon the data of experience, insist that all things are of equal value except as weeded out by



natural selection, and enslave themselves to the crude fact. The first error is the error of modern art, the second that of modern politics—at least, so far as both have been evolved under democratic institutions. The art of democracy is supposed to demand that no forms be rejected as ignoble. The politics of democracy, theoretically allowing free play to the conflicting wills of individuals, each striving for the ends indicated by his "enlightened self-interest," fails to provide for right leadership, for a chosen *mind* to control the welter, and so falls into the gripe of wrong leadership. For a mind of some sort is sure to gain control, soon or late. Modern science has escaped the second error, by selecting from the method of Bacon that part which is Greek in spirit. The Baconian induction, just in so far as it enslaved itself to fact, and disallowed hypothesis, and denied the rights of mind—just in so far as it was un-Greek—was a failure; and just in so far as it "married mind with matter"—to use Bacon's own similitude—was, and is, a success. We are not to be, says Bacon again, like the ant, which gathers and stores up her hoard untransformed by aught that she does; nor yet like the spider, which spins her subtle thread all from within; but rather like the bee, which both gathers from without and transforms from within that which she gathers. Only thus shall we get "sweetness and light."

The Hellenist still believes that, things being given, ideas shall prevail. And so, instead of *fighting* things out, or letting the stress of competing forces among things work out its wasteful end, as Nature does, at dreadful expense of pain, at dire expense of spirit and of life, he endeavors to *think* things out. He may, by international arbitration, substitute the sanction of ideas for the sanction of arms. Or, upon a broad basis of facts, he may build a luminous hypothesis or rise to a law. He may be designing a subway or a city, and planning it so that the work will not have to be done over after the lapse of years. He may raise wages or share his profits not under the compulsion of a strike, but again under the compulsion of an idea—his own idea of equitable distribution. In many ways his mind, dealing with fact, will draw wisdom out of life; in many ways he will reëmbodify that wisdom in chosen forms of beauty, and with whatever materials life gives him will make of himself a poet, and of life an art. We leave the subject with a question for those of an inquiring mind: Is our "modern" way of life favorable to tempers of this kind? Do we believe in the supremacy of spirit? And would it have been a merit in the Greeks had they been like us?

SAMUEL LEE WOLFF.

#### FRENCH BOOKS IN LITERATURE AND HISTORY.

PARIS, March 25.

"La Vie et les œuvres de Honoré d'Urfé" (Plon, 5 francs), by Canon O. C. Reure, professor at the Catholic faculty of letters in Lyons, belongs to the generally interesting class of university studies, while setting forth all that trained erudition can tell us of an epoch-making writer in the classic literature of France. Honoré d'Urfé, who fought with the League, and whose grandfather was preceptor of the children of Henry II, was in his life a link between the Renaissance and Richelieu's prelude to the reign of Louis XIV. His "Astrée," in which "by several histories and under persons of shepherds and others are deduced the divers effects of honest friendship," in its 5,000 pages of prose mingled with snatches of verse uttered the French romantic ideals current until Rousseau came to replace it with his "Nouvelle Héloïse." After fifty years, La Fontaine, who was the next mouthpiece of his race's inmost thought, was as much in love with "Astrée" as were its contemporaries.

Agrippa d'Aubigné, the Juvenal of that age according to Sainte-Beuve, was the exact contrary of D'Urfé; he forms the subject of the latest volume, by S. Rocheblave, in the series of Great Writers of France (Hachette, 2 francs). He was a son of the first generation that followed Calvin, studied under Theodore Beza, fought under Henry of Navarre, was three times condemned to death in France without harm to himself, but, after his Universal History "from 1550 to 1601" had really been delivered to the flames (1620), retired to Geneva, where he found means to have his Calvinist brethren condemn him a fourth time to death "for his honor and pleasure." He answered by marrying a second time under their noses. His granddaughter, Madame de Maintenon, did her utmost, which was not little, to drive all Calvinists from France. Agrippa himself had never returned, but died in Geneva in his bed in 1630. His many works, little known, have their "complex unity, their exceptional grandeur" in the man—"for in him all was character."

The second volume, dealing with the seventeenth century, of the "Manuel bibliographique de la littérature française moderne—1500-1900" (Hachette, 4 francs), by Gustave Lanson, professor at the Sorbonne, has just appeared. The work is to comprise four handy volumes, one for each century.

"Alfred de Vigny: sa vie et son œuvre" (Armand Colin, 4 francs), is by Emile Lauvrière, who is already favorably known to American readers from his immensely complete work on Poe. The present book, while based on equal erudition, aims at general exposition

and criticism of a poet whose life was as significant as his work. Alfred de Vigny was of that generation of the smaller French aristocracy born in full Revolution; and he was brought up on the old ideas in a world which had changed utterly. He was not, as Alfred de Musset explains of himself, begotten in the interval of Imperial campaigns; but he came to manhood and followed the military career of his ancestors under restored Bourbons who had forgotten what made their greatness in the irrecoverable past and had learned little of the world's present needs. After fourteen years of what he explained eloquently and at length in his "Military Servitude and Grandeur," he found his way as a poet, and, with all his classic form, led the Romantic Revolution at the side of his younger *bourgeois* friend, Victor Hugo. Bonaparte and Byron had equally their spirit transfused into these souls. Vigny had the advantage, not only of knowing English from childhood, but—more doubtfully—that of an English wife. After a few years of renown in poetry, play, and prose writing, which left him a French classic, he retired for thirty years more into his tower of ivory. Sainte-Beuve, who knew him young, accredited the legend of decline. Our author, examining in the light of time which has sifted reputations and brought into relief the poet's person amid his age, treats it as a "glorious decline." He justifies that "prestige of genius which even then imposed itself on poets differing most among themselves—rivals such as Lamartine, Hugo, Musset—as well as on disciples like Leconte de Lisle and Baudelaire, Coppée and Sully-Prudhomme. . . . In his full right he enters into the austere family of Lucretius and Leopardi, of Marcus Aurelius and Pascal; beyond his country's bounds he speaks to the select few, if not to the crowd, of all peoples and every age, his beneficent message of Stoicism tender and proud:

"J'aime la majesté des souffrances humaines."

"John Keats: sa vie et son œuvre" (Hachette, 10 francs), by Lucien Wolff, has the splendid look of a thesis for the doctorate of letters. Naturally it is complete; and it puts in French form much criticism of poetry which Keats has indeed inspired, but which might not occur to English readers of less philosophy. It is accompanied by "An Essay on Keats's treatment of the heroic rhythm and blank verse," in English.

The two remaining volumes of "Études critiques sur la vie de Christophe Colomb avant ses découvertes," by Henry Vignaud, are in the hands of the printer and should appear in April. They form two rather stout volumes, which, the author informs us, "is a great deal, but I could not do otherwise. Part of the chapter on Beatriz Enríquez



(mother of Fernando, son and historian of Columbus), which was very long, had to be taken out": this was read at the Société des Américanistes of Paris, January 4, 1910, and doubtless will be published separately. In fact, the question of the legitimacy of the discoverer's union with Beatriz has stood permanently in the way of any serious attempt at introducing the process of his canonization at Rome; here, it may safely be said, Mr. Vignaud's work is exhaustive. A question more important in history, though not in popular feeling, is that of the pilot from whom Columbus had indications of the existence and whereabouts of the New World. It is to be expected that not all students of the history of Columbus will agree with all the conclusions of Mr. Vignaud; but it is certain that no history worthy of the name can henceforth be written without due attention to his complete analysis of all the documentary evidence existing and to his critical examination of it. These studies have been the labor of the leisure hours of the industrious author during his forty years or so as secretary of legation or embassy for the United States in Paris. They suppose a degree of erudition not common in the diplomatic career, but associated rather with independent students like the late Henry Charles Lea. They have involved the patient and costly collection of a large library of Americana, perhaps unique in its line. They are an honor to American scholarship, for Henry Vignaud comes from one of our oldest "native American" families of Louisiana, found there with Bienville two hundred years ago.

"Les Grands Ports de France" (Armand Colin, 3.50 francs), by Paul de Rousiers, is from an author favorably known by his early economic studies of the United States, and by later works on England and Germany. The present book treats in order a subject of vital importance to the maritime prosperity of France: the economic rôle of each of the great ports—Dunkerque, Havre, Rouen, Nantes, La Rochelle-Pallice, Bordeaux, and Marseille—in relation with the surrounding region, with industry and commerce. The general lines of study are explained in forty pages of introduction and may be applied usefully to other countries. The various chapters give valuable information, not easily found elsewhere, on important seaports.

"La Question polonaise" (Armand Colin, 4 francs), by R. Dmowski, with a preface by Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, presents to the Western world the international claims of the Polish land and race as made by its chief representative in the Russian Duma. Taking up the situation of Poland, after the ineffectual insurrection of 1864, and the progressive transformation of the Poles in Russia, Austria, and Germany, the

author formulates the present historic crisis of the Polish question:

The chief danger which threatens the national existence of Poland dwells in the disproportioned growth of German power under the direction of Prussia and in the progress eastward of pacific German conquest. The Polish nation alone is capable of turning aside the danger and staying the onward march of the German tide. But this it will succeed in doing only by intensive labor in all the realms of human activity; it has to develop its national forces so that they may be able to meet the forces of Germanism. The natural ground of such development and labor is the Kingdom of Poland. Now, in the Kingdom of Poland itself, they are made impossible by Russian policy. This policy is but an inept imitation of the anti-Polish policy of Prussia; there is nothing to justify it in the interests of Russia herself nor in the designs which she intends pursuing in Poland. Its only result is to benefit Germany and to prepare for German domination in all Eastern Europe.

To upset this system in Russian politics, to bring about a radical change in the relations of Russia with the Poles, is therefore not only the interest of the Polish nation; it is also that of all the peoples threatened by the progress of German conquest, and therefore the interest of Russia as well.

"L'Argentine au XXe siècle" (Armand Colin, 5 francs), by Albert B. Martinez and Maurice Lewandowski, with a preface of twenty-two pages by the veteran statistician Emile Levasseur and an introduction of nineteen pages by the former Argentine President, C. Pellegrini, was crowned by the French Academy at its first appearance. It is now brought up to date and constitutes a handy and complete exposition of the Argentine Republic, economical, agricultural (inventoried at \$4,000,000,000), commercial, industrial, and financial.

S. D.

#### NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

An important discovery of documents that throw some light on American colonial and revolutionary history, has recently been made known through the publication of the latest report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission of Great Britain. These are the Knox and the Cornwallis manuscripts, now in private hands, but very fully calendared in the report of the Commission. William Knox was for a time provost marshal of Georgia, member of the council there, a landowner who afterward received compensation as a Loyalist, and an agent for Georgia in England. More important still, he was under secretary of state for the colonies, serving under Hillsborough, Dartmouth, and Lord George Germain, a frequent writer on American affairs, and a close friend of men in political life. Few officials in England were more familiar with conditions in America than he, and he was frequently called upon by his chiefs to furnish information, to draft dispatches and letters, and to communicate with other secretaries and departments. Dartmouth left much of the secretarial work to him,

and Lord George, though occasionally making alterations in his drafts, seems generally to have accepted his statements without demur. How far Knox and Pownall, his colleague, influenced governmental policy would be an interesting subject for inquiry, and a comparison of this correspondence with the colonial secretary's letter-books would probably throw light on that matter. Knox was intimate with Grenville, North, and Thurlow, wrote frequently to Govs. Lyttleton and Ellis, and carried on an extensive correspondence with George Cressener, the British agent who negotiated the employment of the German auxiliaries on the Continent. The calendar here printed fills more than 200 pages. Admiral Cornwallis was a younger brother of Lord Cornwallis, and served as captain in the navy in American and West Indian waters during the early years of the revolutionary war. He shared in some of Rodney's victories in the West Indies. His correspondence is chiefly of a personal character, the most important letters here calendared being those from his brother, written during 1777-1779, and supplementing in a small way the Cornwallis manuscripts in the Public Record Office.

Two collections of manuscripts of even greater moment for American history than the Knox Papers are to be sold at Sotheby's April 25. They are the property of Lord Polwarth, a descendant of the Lord Chancellor of Scotland, and of Robert Winter Blathwayt, Esq., of Dyham Park, Gloucestershire, a descendant of William Blathwayt, auditor-general of the plantations, 1680-1717. Both collections are of the highest significance for our colonial history. The Blathwayt Papers alone contain eight hundred letters relating to the original continental colonies and supplement in a remarkable manner the recently discovered Blathwayt Journal, a transcript of which is now in the Library of Congress. Of the entire series only the Randolph letters have been printed. The remainder is composed of correspondence with colonial secretaries and governors of New England, New York, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Virginia—Allyn, Dudley, Andros, Increase Mather, Phips, Stoughton, Penn, Dongan, Fletcher, Bellomont, Cranston, Calvert, Nicholson, Bacon, Byrd, Culpeper, and others; and among official documents there is the original draft of the grant of Pennsylvania to William Penn, bearing many additions and corrections on the margin. These papers, together with a rich collection of entry books, maps, and miscellaneous documents relating to the colonies, constitute the most important material for our history that has been thrown upon the market for many years. Though some of the Polwarth Papers are manifestly copies, the originals of which exist elsewhere, others of them are no less valuable than are those in the Blathwayt series, while among them may be found a very important collection of pamphlets relating chiefly to trade, dating back to 1674. When it is further stated that the Blathwayt Papers contain above a thousand documents relating to the West Indies, 1683-1719, three large folio volumes of copies of letters patent concerning trade, discoveries, and the plantations to 1706, and other manuscripts throwing light on Newfoundland, the fisheries, relations with the Dutch, 1664-1674, the Admiralty Court, and discoveries in South America, some idea will

be given of the rare and unique opportunity thus held out to purchasers. It is hoped that the British Museum and the Library of Congress will not be found wanting in their duty, as a dispersal of such collections would be a misfortune to our historians.

The collection of engravings (mostly American) formed by the late Edwin B. Holden of New York, will be sold at auction at the American Art Galleries, the sale beginning April 21 and lasting with sessions day and evening for more than two weeks. Mr. Holden had been a collector of books in various departments, autographs, prints, china, medals, etc., for a long time, and his was one of the notable private collections formed within the last thirty years. At the time of his death, in 1906, he was president of the Grolier Club. The portions of the collection now to be sold are the prints, including the most important collections of portraits of Washington and Franklin ever offered at auction, and an extensive series of engraved views of New York city; also the autographs, and the printed books, broadsides, and newspapers relating to American Colonial history and the Revolution. A more extended notice will be given next week.

On April 11 the Anderson Auction Co. will sell part vii of the library of an old New York collector, including a long series of Pickering's Early English Classics, 50 vols.; the Oxford Classics edition of Bacon's works; a complete set of the Darley Cooper, 32 vols.; Crowe and Cavalcaselle's "History of Painting," and other important works.

The Merwin-Clayton Co.'s sale of April 12, 13, and 14 will include a large collection of pamphlets from the library of the late Edward Everett Hale; books on the Revolution, Canada, the Indians, etc.

On April 21 and 22 C. F. Libbie & Co. will sell the library of the late E. P. Jewel of Laconia, N. H., comprising a long series of first editions of the books of Thomas Bailey Aldrich, as well as first editions of other American authors; town histories, genealogies, Confederate publications, etc. The most valuable single item is the manuscript log-book of the American ship of war *The Ranger*, from August 24, 1778 to May 10, 1780. Paul Jones commanded the ship for a time, but this cruise begins after he had turned over the command to Lieut. Simpson. The volume contains 240 pages.

## Correspondence.

### AN EDITORIAL INJUSTICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I ask the courtesy of your columns to call attention to an example of extraordinary editorial ethics to which I have recently fallen a victim? The only organ in Great Britain devoted to the ancient civilizations of the Hither Orient, or Western Asia and Egypt, is the *Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archaeology* of London, now under the editorship of Dr. Walter L. Nash, a retired physician. In this journal the correctness of a number of essential observations of fact in the temple of Wadi Halfa, contained in my report of the work of the University of Chicago Expedition at this temple, was called in question by Mr. Scott-Moncrieff of the British Museum. I thereupon submitted to

the editor photographic prints of the reliefs and inscriptions in question, proving the accuracy of my report, and accompanied them by a text and further photographs (all of which were published in the *Proceedings*), showing that Mr. Scott-Moncrieff's own examination of the temple was so incredibly careless and incorrect that, besides mistakes and omissions in every line of inscription that he attempted to reproduce, he overlooked whole walls bearing the most important evidence. For example, Mr. Scott-Moncrieff reports that "all traces of the reliefs on the outer northern wall have been removed by the action of wind-blown sand"; whereas this wall is covered throughout its entire length with well-preserved reliefs, of all of which I have submitted photographs to the editor of the *Proceedings*.

Replying to this exposé in a rejoinder which betrays great irritation and contains highly discourteous personalities, not suppressed by the editor of the *Proceedings*, Mr. Scott-Moncrieff is unable to introduce any evidence in rebuttal concerning the subject under discussion. Leaving the temple of Wadi Halfa, therefore, the only subject under discussion between us, Mr. Scott-Moncrieff introduces an irrelevant attack upon the translation of the *Annals of Thutmose III* in my "Ancient Records of Egypt." He accuses me of having inadvertently omitted in five separate places in this translation a total of not less than nineteen words "in five consecutive lines at the opening of one of the most important historical inscriptions there is!" (The exclamation point is Mr. Scott-Moncrieff's and is not intended to call attention to his felicitous English). He adds that plenty of similar omissions in my translation of the *Annals* can be found by any reader who will compare it with the edition of the original text by Professor Sethe. Having thus produced on the readers of the *Proceedings* the desired impression of wholesale inaccuracy on my part, Mr. Scott-Moncrieff closes with a jaunty reference to "glass houses," etc., etc.

The actual facts will seem incredible to the reader. All of the "omissions" in my translation of the *Annals* listed by Mr. Scott-Moncrieff as inadvertent errors on my part are carefully indicated to the reader by me in the translation. Each such "omission" in the translation represents a complete gap in the original hieroglyphic document, due to mutilation at the hands of Time, Wear, or Vandalism. Professor Sethe, endeavoring to fill these gaps, in his edition of the text, has inserted editorial restorations—restorations carefully indicated by him as such by means of enclosing brackets. Not a trace of the restored words so inserted by Sethe exists on the original wall, but they are *in toto* conjectural insertions by him. It is the "omission" of these bracketed restorations inserted by Sethe in his text, which Mr. Scott-Moncrieff gravely lays to my charge! Furthermore, Professor Sethe's admirable text of the *Annals* appeared more than a year after my translation was published, so that it would have been impossible to include his restorations, had I so desired.

Comment on Mr. Scott-Moncrieff's character, or on his experience as an Orientalist, is needless; but what shall we say of the ethical standards of an editor who peremp-

torily refuses to allow the victim of such misrepresentation any space in his journal for a brief statement of the actual facts? I sent the editor at once a rejoinder which was confined to the facts and contained no personalities. He refused to publish it. I then sent him a very brief statement of the facts of Mr. Scott-Moncrieff's misrepresentations—a statement here reproduced in the preceding paragraph of this letter. He curtly refused to publish it. He edits the sole journal in Great Britain occupying the field of the Hither Orient, and it is well that scholars should know of the treatment which a foreign colleague has received at his hands. It goes without saying that our English colleagues at large are not represented by this standard of editorial ethics; and I have already received voluntary assurance of regret from one English scholar, who wrote as soon as he saw the misrepresentations in the *Proceedings*.

JAMES HENRY BREASTED.

The University of Chicago, March 27.

### TRAINING IN THE ARMY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To any one who will give the subject a little consideration it must be evident that there is something wrong with our regular army. The present authorized force is, I believe, about 75,000 men. This is not a large number relatively to our population, yet there is often much difficulty in keeping the companies filled, and in many cases the recruiting officers are compelled to accept the waifs and strays of humanity; men who, in the battle of life, have failed or are discouraged—and of these they make soldiers. A man once enlisted is provided for very carefully. Everything that ingenuity can suggest is done to amuse him and keep him contented; but, in spite of all this effort, the service is riddled with desertions, and the pursuit of the escaped soldier is a regular part of the business.

An enlisted man, for the term of his service, has every material need supplied. He does not have to exercise his initiative in any way towards the solution of life's first problem, viz., the earning of his daily bread; he is taught absolutely nothing of the arts of peace, and acquires nothing of self-reliance, with the result that he comes to the day of his discharge even more dependent and helpless than when he enlisted, and with the additional handicap of having lost several years of his flexible youth.

To an outsider who watches the strut and parade of an army post it seems as though two hours a day should be ample to teach the men all that is necessary or that they now are taught of war. Is it not practicable to utilize the six hours remaining of a working day to teach them something useful?

The 75,000 men in the army have an average earning power of, say, \$400 per year. This foots up to the snug total of \$30,000,000. Instead of reducing the earning capacity of these men by a term of army service, and making them less desirable citizens, is it not possible to increase their value to themselves and to society? Here is a suggestion: Establish at every army post a first-class school or college, and employ the five or six hours per day of waste time in the life of the soldier to give him some-



thing of an education in the arts of peace. These schools might be manual training high schools, agricultural colleges, or even technical schools of a higher grade, as found desirable to fit any special locality or condition.

It would immediately be objected that the cost of such a scheme would be prohibitive, but this is not the fact. The operation of such schools need not add a dollar to the present cost of the army service. The common soldier now receives, in money, about \$200 per year. If he had the opportunity to get an education on the lines indicated above, his pay could be cut in two and he would still be getting greater compensation than he receives at the present time. One hundred dollars per year saved in the wages of each man would mean, for a post of four companies, the sum of \$40,000 per year, an amount more than sufficient to furnish elementary or even advanced education.

With such a system in effect, enlistment could be made a matter of competitive examination, and there would be more applicants than could possibly be accommodated. The canteen question and several other questions would dispose of themselves, and at the end of twelve or fifteen years an army of graduates would be scattered through the country that would make even the Kaiser tremble. Past experience does not indicate that actual war would interfere to any appreciable extent with the working of such a plan, and there would be no difficulty in putting it into effect gradually. AARON M. BURT.

Jamestown, N. D., March 25.

#### FOR A PARCELS-POST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I know of no better evidence of the urgent need of a parcels-post system in the United States than the experience of an institution like the Wisconsin Historical Society with the express companies of this country. Once or twice each year we make a shipment of about 1,000 packages of books—Proceedings, Collections, or other publications of the society. For many reasons we should prefer to patronize the post office, but two obstacles confront us: First, in order to attract patronage, the express rate is purposely made somewhat lower than the postal rate, and we naturally desire to economize; secondly, the Post Office Department declines to receive packages weighing above four pounds, and our parcels are likely to exceed that.

The express companies are commonly supposed to be models of efficient business administration. But the supreme test of efficiency on the part of a high-priced transportation agency, is the getting of the package into the hands of the consignee. Herein, the postal department, now upon the grill for laxity of business methods, rises far superior to its rival; its officials certainly do "deliver the goods," and spare neither pains nor ingenuity in doing so.

On the other hand, the express companies (they are all alike in this respect) resort to slipshod methods, apparently employ as delivery messengers the most incompetent service possible, and after a single trial "give it up," should there be the slightest difficulty in the way. Then comes into play an elaborate and doubt-

less costly system of notifications through whole series of officials and sub-officials, until finally the consignor is informed by the local agent that his correspondent "cannot be found." This model business machine then rests complacently until the consignor ingeniously suggests that perhaps No. 445 had best be tried, seeing that No. 443 is under repairs and closed; that Hon. R. F. Smith of Podunk should probably read Hon. R. T. Smith; or that "The Historical Society, Wilmington, Del.," should read "The Historical Society of Delaware, Wilmington, Del.," the latter an actual case in point, the correspondence relating to which lies on my desk at this writing.

I do not think that any large shipment of packages of this character ever went forth from our institution, but some thirty or forty cases, at least, came up, wherein nothing but rank stupidity on the part of express company employees could account for the trouble; for in nearly every case, our consignees are either individuals of considerable local prominence, or learned institutions that might readily be found by the newest arrival in town. Once, we were curtly notified that "Hon. Seth Low, New York City," "could not be found," and yet at that moment he doubtless was sitting in the mayor's chair at City Hall.

Performances of this character, persisted in year by year, are far from creditable to great corporations which perniciously and persistently throttle proposed reforms looking to a parcels-post. If they would but seek to rival the Post Office Department in efficiency, more might be said in favor of their contention.

R. G. THWAITES.

Madison, Wis., March 25.

#### LOUIS NAPOLEON AND THE TEACHING CLERGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I recently had occasion to discuss for an American review F. A. Simpson's new volume, entitled "The Rise of Louis Napoleon." The book makes passing mention of a letter written by that enterprising public character to the provincial French newspaper *Le Progrès du Pas-de-Calais* from his prison at Ham in 1843, concerning the educational work of the Catholic Church in France. The remarkably shrewd and just observations of the young emperor-to-be on a question that, just as he foresaw, is now dividing France (and incidentally endangering the national integrity of Spain), are worthy of serious consideration by all friends of the church and of good government as well. An English translation of the letter appeared in Louis Napoleon's collected works (first English edition, 1852), and, with the help of some additional information kindly furnished me by the brilliant young Englishman to whom we owe the new book, I am able to outline a most interesting discussion.

It will be remembered that Louis had spent a large part of his youth in Augsburg, which gives him the authority of one who speaks with full knowledge, not merely of the dangers of the French system, but of the merits of the German method, which he approves.

It is right, he says, that the clergy should teach Christianity to the children, and it is right that they should do so under gov-

ernment protection; for disestablishment would leave the church schools to live by their wits, and would encourage interested trafficking in sacred things. On the other hand, it is necessary that public instruction, with all other branches of public activity, be pursued under the direction of the secular government. But the church cannot remain free to teach the rising generation hatred of liberty, as that organization is inclined to do in France. How is this to be prevented? By giving the clergy the proper education; they must be made to "study science as of old, and to be with and of the people, by drawing their education from the same source as they." That this measure will result in substantial harmony of views between the church and the secular government is shown (I am reporting Napoleon) by conditions in the South German States, where the future priests study theology in the universities along with the candidates for other professions, and so "learn to be citizens before they are priests."

Louis says of the German priests:

There are no sacrifices from which they would shrink for the cause of liberty and the fatherland. In their eyes to be a priest is to teach morality and charity; it is to make common cause with the oppressed; it is to preach justice and toleration; it is to preach the reign of equality; it is to teach men that the political redemption should follow the religious redemption.

If this state of affairs could be brought about in France, a truly ideal condition would follow the application of Christ's own teaching:

The sublime doctrine which destroyed slavery, which taught men that they were equal, and that God had implanted in their breasts a faith to believe in good and a love to be extended to one another.

Barring the somewhat enthusiastic conclusion—which is interesting, but scarcely in tune with Napoleon's own practice or uniformly with that of the German clergy—have we not here an astonishingly true presentation of the real difficulty and the best solution? However unconvincing a comparison may be between countries so differently governed as Germany and France, is it not certain that atheism or piety, republicanism or monarchism, is very largely, perhaps principally, a result of the education received during the formative period?

ROY TEMPLE HOUSE.

Weatherford, Okla., March 21.

#### MEDIEVAL MEDICAL SCIENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot understand how anybody can deny, after the works of Spengel, Haeser, Pagel, and others, that the medical science of the Middle Ages was beneath contempt. Pagel says that it represents "the highest degree of sterility," at least in western Europe; the Byzantines and the Arabs knew a little more, because they had preserved something of the Greek tradition. "Monastic Medicine," writes Pagel, "is a document of the decadence of knowledge in its most distressing form." The fact that there were hospitals and doctors during the Middle Ages is no proof of the existence of a science worthy of that name. The School of Salerno owed its superiority to the fact that Greek influences had been kept alive in that south Italian town, and also to the lay character of the professors; but even there not one positive progress was made.



The medical science of the scholastic period depends entirely upon Arabic and Jewish learning, which, after all, was of Byzantine origin, and, as far as it was not absurd, purely Greek. The "Speculum Naturale" of Vincentius Bellovacensis (1290) gives an idea of the ignorance of the age. To conclude with a quotation from Pagel: "There is no doubt that the sixteenth century found the study of medicine, and particularly that of anatomy and physiology, exactly in the same condition where it had been left in the third century." Mondino de' Liucci (†1326) was the first Christian who dared to dissect a human body—ten centuries after the triumph of the Christian church over paganism! No amount of reasoning or of sophistry can prevail against that stubborn fact. Not only were the Middle Ages times of darkness and ignorance, but of filth, disease, and untold misery. There is still a good deal of mediævalism lurking in the world, and where some of that poison remains, misery, filth, and disease are endemic, not to speak of some evils of an even worse kind, such as indifference to truth and hatred of reason.

SALOMON REINACH.

Paris, March 22.

#### THE HERALD IN "HENRY V."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Professor Bruce points out in your issue of March 10 that Professor Wallace is mistaken in saying that Shakespeare "also honors his host (Christopher Mountjoy) by raising him in the play ('Henry V') to the dignity of a French herald under his own name of Montjoy." Professor Bruce proceeds to say that "Mountjoy" or "Montjoie" was already the name of the Herald in Holinshed's "Chronicle," which was Shakespeare's source for this play. Your correspondent, like Professor Wallace, evidently considers Mountjoy as a personal name. It was, in fact, the designation of an office, that of Chief of the Heralds. From the thirteenth century this officer was called in France "Montjoie roi d'armes."

Those who are interested in such matters may find an illustration of the practice of giving names to the heralds which has lasted in England from the Middle Ages to the present day. In the London Times, weekly edition, February 25, 1910, in the account of the opening of Parliament, occurs the following passage:

The Royal Procession entered the Chamber a few minutes past two o'clock. The Pursuivants and Heralds came first, pacing slowly in their gold and crimson Tabards. Bluemantle and Rouge Croix walked side by side, and Rouge Dragon followed with Portcullis.

R. W. SHANNON.

Saskatoon, Sask., March 21.

#### SELF-GOVERNMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: According to press reports Col. Roosevelt told the Egyptian Nationalists that they were not at present fitted for self-government, but that possibly they might be in time. This view of the situation seems to have surprised and disgusted them, as might have been expected, suckled, as they are, in a creed outworn; but the really surprising part of the whole affair is that so much of the American press takes the colonel's views as a trite commonplace,

an axiom needing no proof. The ex-President may not have made a serious contribution to political science in proclaiming that all men are not equally fitted for self-government; but the incident may well be taken as marking one of the milestones in the road towards political sanity, as he undoubtedly represents the average intelligent opinion. The Filipino we believe to be incapable of decent self-government; the Porto Rican has yet to show us that he is fit; we have our suspicions of the Cuban, and it is an open secret that we regret giving the ballot to the negro without qualifications. We know that the colored brother is virtually disfranchised in many parts of the South, and we acquiesce, or at least we do not exhibit that hot indignation we should have shown half a century ago. Time-honored political shibboleths are challenged and comprehensive social formulas are doubted. "Fraternity" we still embrace—platonically; "liberty" we view askance; but "equality" we repudiate outright. From the point of view of political evolution Roosevelt's Egyptian campaign is highly significant.

E. L. C. MORSE.

Chicago, April 1.

## Literature.

### EAST AFRICA.

*The Land of the Lion.* By W. S. Rainsford. Illustrated from photographs. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. \$3.80 net.

*Hunting in British East Africa.* By Percy C. Madeira. With a foreword by Frederick Courteney Selous, and 129 illustrations from photographs by the author. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$5 net.

*In the Grip of the Nyika.* By Lieut.-Col. J. H. Patterson, D.S.O. With illustrations. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$2 net.

*In Wildest Africa: The Record of a Hunting and Exploration Trip in East Africa and a Description of the Various Native Tribes.* By Peter MacQueen. Illustrated. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$3.

*Through Uganda to Mount Elgon.* By J. B. Purvis. With a map and 42 illustrations. New York: American Tract Society. \$1.50.

*Native Life in East Africa.* By Dr. Karl Weule. Translated by Alice Werner. Illustrated. New York: D. Appleton & Co. \$4.50 net.

East Africa is attracting attention today as never before; principally, of course, because it is the great hunting-ground of the world. In no other country can one travel by rail for hundreds of miles through what is practically a zoölogical garden; where a train can be stopped by an inquisitive giraffe breaking the headlight of an engine, and a lion can take its prey from a sleeper. But this is not the only cause of the present interest. Every sportsman and

traveller is emphasizing the fact that nowhere else are there such vast tracts of rich but undeveloped land, capable of raising not only all tropical products, but those also of the temperate zone, and easily accessible to the world-markets. Considering the extensive plantations already established, one is justified in the belief that as a field for sportsmen its days are numbered, and that as a cotton-growing region alone it will probably in the not very distant future outrank every other country. Then an inexhaustible source of interest is found in the natives, ranging as they do from the forest pigmy, nearest the brute, to the civilized Baganda. From this diversity they present perplexing governmental and educational problems to their German and English rulers. These the German Government is zealously endeavoring to solve, by experimental stations for tropical culture and cattle-raising, industrial training schools, the construction of roads and railways, and by sending scientific expeditions for the exploration of the colony and the study of the inhabitants. Things are different in the neighboring territory, if we may trust the evidence of the *Star*, one of the three weeklies of Nairobi, the capital. Some time ago it published a supplement consisting of a pamphlet of sixty-four pages, on the outside of which was printed in large type the words, "What the British Government is doing for East Africa." Upon opening the pamphlet the other pages were found to be blank.

The natural result of this awakened interest is the great increase of literature, both magazine and book, with a wide range from the stories of hunters' exploits to reports of the work of explorers, ethnographers, and missionaries.

The most noteworthy of these recent books in many respects is the "Land of the Lion," by Dr. W. S. Rainsford, former rector of St. George's Church in New York. It is the narrative of a trip in British East Africa made in 1908, during which Dr. Rainsford walked and rode more than 5,000 miles—his aim being, not killing, but hunting. To the account of each day's experiences, written generally in camp and so having a vivid freshness, there is joined much valuable information for those intending to follow him and Mr. Roosevelt, whether man or woman. For women hunters are to be found there now, enduring the strain and braving the dangers of the big-game quest. Dr. Rainsford gives most precise directions in regard to the necessary preparations for the make-up of the "safari" (as these hunting parties are called), and useful hints as to the safest way to hunt the various animals. In a chapter entitled a "Plea for the Native" he characterizes those untouched by civilization as "simple, truthful, and most lovable peo-

ples." In thirteen months' daily marching among a band that generally numbered a hundred men he knew of only one serious quarrel. What they need most is instruction in the simplest religious truths, industrial education, and to be "firmly, lovingly forced to work." (The italics are his.) The lack of a well-considered policy on the part of their English rulers is emphasized, and the granting of large concessions of land to what are virtually speculators is condemned. The immigrant Boer he calls "an unmixed nuisance," and of the Indian he says that "economically he may be a convenience, but morally he is a curse." The account of his hunting adventures occupies, of course, the main part of the book, and, notwithstanding the similarity of conditions and incidents, will prove of unfailing interest at least to the keen sportsman. As a lion-hunter he ranks high, having shot "four lions in three days, seven shots to the four, not so bad." The most difficult trophy to get, and, in his opinion, the finest of all, is the buffalo head.

Percy C. Madeira's "Hunting in British Africa" is the story of another sportsman's experiences told in a modest and entertaining way. In a trip of only three months, he was able to obtain specimens of thirty-five different animals, including all the big game, except the elephant, for the shooting of which he could not get a permit. Useful information is given in regard to the outfit of a "safari" and the safest way of tracking the game. The constant dangers to which the hunter is exposed are very clearly shown. One never knows, he says, "from one moment to another what the next bush, shadow, or tree may hide. The innocent-looking rock lying in the grass twenty or thirty yards from you may become a pugnacious rhinoceros; the silently stalking buffalo that has watched your approach, unseen by you, may suddenly charge out from the shadow of a tree; a lion may start up from the cover of a bunch of grass or a bush just ahead of you—all of which render it a matter of keyed-up attention that is not, I imagine, approached in any other country." With him, it may be added, as with Dr. Rainsford, "the charm lies in the fascination and excitement of the chase, with the killing alone to be regretted." There are many interesting descriptions of the country passed through, and of the natives. The loyalty of his followers to him, and especially to his wife, who accompanied him, was such that he was "sure they would have given their lives to protect her; and she had the same confidence in them." Referring to the custom of perforating the ears and stretching the holes in the lobes, he says that he has seen natives "take the lobe of one ear over the top of the head and loop it un-

der the ear on the other side." Among his specimens, whose mounted heads are shown in the frontispiece, was the dikdik, the smallest of all the antelopes, standing only fourteen inches high at the shoulder, and weighing about seven pounds, which burrows underneath the deep grass and creeps and crawls along like a rabbit.

Another evidence of the fascination exerted by this hunter's paradise is the title which Col. J. H. Patterson, author of the well-known "Man-Eaters of Tsavo," has chosen for his new work. This is the story of his trials and adventures during two recent expeditions in the *nyika* or wilderness, the one for hunting simply, the other primarily for determining the eastern boundary of the Northern Game Reserve. In each his party included a woman hunter, whose success in securing big game was remarkable. As the husband of one of these women was killed during the second expedition, and the author himself was stricken with fever and wrote his book while still suffering from its effects, a minor key naturally runs through the narrative. In the main, however, it possesses interest on account of the exciting adventures recorded, among which was an encounter with a rogue elephant and a thrilling night spent in a bush-shelter besieged by lions. "The weirdest sight," he could ever wish to see, to use his words, was sixteen rhinos "all roaring at each other and struggling and fighting in their efforts to get at a water-hole." The boundary work carried him into a virtually unknown region, where the natives were a constant source of danger. It is for this reason that a tract some thirty-eight thousand square miles in extent has been made a reserve, because as yet there is no "effective control" over the inhabitants. They are largely Masai, and in his description of them he tells of one the lobes of whose ears "hung down in two long tassels over his shoulder. When they got in his way too much, he used calmly to take hold of the two ends and tie them up in a knot!"

There is a wider range in the Rev. Peter MacQueen's "In Wildest Africa," as his aim was, not so much sport, as the gathering of material for lectures and a book. He travelled through British East Africa, crossed the frontier into the German possessions, and climbed nearly to the summit of Kilimanjaro (being the first American to make the attempt), voyaged on the Victoria Nyanza, and skirted the southern part of Uganda to the "fountains of the Nile" or the Ripon Falls. To a disconnected narrative of his personal experiences he adds much historical and ethnographical information in regard to the country and its inhabitants. On account of the great undeveloped natural wealth of Uganda he predicts for it a

highly prosperous future, notwithstanding the present terrible plague of the sleeping-sickness. He visited one of the six great hospitals established by the British authorities, at which seven hundred patients were cared for. At Kampala, the capital, he had an interview with the king, Dauda Chwa, "a graceful distinguished looking lad, twelve years old, . . . who talked to us in English. He was greatly interested in America, and in the coming visit of ex-President Roosevelt. He showed me a map of Uganda he had himself drawn; and upon it he had marked the places where the best elephants could be shot. He seemed a little shy at first, but this shyness gradually wore off. He had a plaintive, sweet voice, and usually expressed his interest or admiration by saying in a boyish treble, 'Oh, yes!'" Another interesting interview was with Ali ben Hamoud, Sultan of Zanzibar, a young man of twenty-two and a graduate of Eton. "He rose and shook hands with us and ordered coffee and cigarettes to be set before us. Almost his first words were: 'I am greatly interested in your big country and planned to visit the United States last year. I was not able to go at that time, but I am going to America as soon as I can make my arrangements.'" Many entertaining stories are told, and there are graphic pictures of life in the towns, on the ranches, and in the bush. Referring to the practice of piercing the ears, he says: "I actually saw a man with a condensed milk can in one ear and a jar of Liebig's extract of beef in the other."

"Through Uganda to Mount Elgon" is much more than a mere book of travels. It is really a plea for the East African native by one of his best friends, an English missionary. After some years' absence Mr. Purvis returned to his work in Uganda, and in describing his journey thither calls attention to the changes which have taken place in the conditions and character of the people, chiefly through the building of the railway. He criticises the government policy, or rather want of policy, in respect to the natives, and advocates strongly giving an industrial education and making the watchword not revenue, but the "development of native resources for and by the native under European supervision." The most interesting part of his book is that in which he tells of his work in the Mount Elgon district among natives the farthest removed from the new influences. Sir H. H. Johnston, the leading authority on these tribes, says they are "perhaps the wildest people to be found anywhere within the limits of the Uganda Protectorate. They are wilder even than the Congo dwarfs." Nevertheless, Mr. Purvis found in them "a charming lightheartedness, breezy ge-



nality, and kind good nature." Another wonderful fact is that women are very much respected, and that the men help to cultivate, being responsible for the "cultivation of all cereals, whilst the women are responsible for the plantain groves." An important part of Mr. Purvis's work was the preparation of a grammar and of a dictionary of ten thousand words, which, however, form but a portion of the native vocabulary. One great difficulty in teaching them is the almost total lack of words to express abstract ideas, as love, grace, faith, trust, holiness, etc. For this last word in especial their language has no equivalent, but they grasp the idea quickly and express it by *kikosefu*, "cleanness or whiteness."

In 1906 a government research expedition was sent to German East Africa, the ethnological and sociological work being entrusted to Prof. Karl Weule of the University of Leipzig. In addition to his published official report he has given in his "Native Life in East Africa" a narrative of his personal experiences, together with much of the information gained during the six months spent in the southern district of the colony. He took every occasion to see the natives in their huts, at their daily occupations, and especially to be present at their songs and dances. Having a camera, a cinematograph, and a phonograph, he was able to secure many valuable pictures and records. At one place, after the singing had ceased, he reproduced some of their songs, to the measureless and joyous astonishment of the brown chorus. When he had finished, "two women, who had previously attracted my notice by their tremendous vocal power, as well as by the elegance of their attire, came forward again; and, as the crowd fell back, leaving a clear space in front of the phonograph, first one and then the other approached the apparatus, dropped a curtsy in the finest court style, and, waving her hand towards the mouthpiece said, '*Kwa, heri, sauti yangu!*'—'Good-bye, my voice!'" The most valuable part of his contributions to our sociological knowledge of the natives is his carefully detailed account of the *unyago*, the ceremonies at the coming of the boys and girls to the age of puberty, which includes the circumcision of the boys. During this period they are kept in separate isolated camps and are instructed by mothers and specially appointed teachers in the rules of conduct and hygiene. "The behavior of young people to their elders in general deserves to be called exemplary." Among their games he found four kinds of tops, one of which corresponds to our peg-top and the diabol. He also got "two charming specimens of an African telephone, consisting of two miniature drums, beautifully carved and covered with the delicate skin of some small animal, perforated in the middle to al-

low the passage of a thin string, which is kept from slipping through by a knot on the inside of the skin." A picture is given of two children talking through it, the string being about a hundred yards in length. He found the natives very fond of drawing, and he reproduces one striking fresco found on the wall of a hut, together with many pictures drawn by the natives at his request. The value of the book is increased by the fact that the translator is professor of Zulu at King's College, London, and the author of several works on the African races. To her admirable translation she has added many valuable notes, in which some errors in Professor Weule's conclusions are corrected and much additional information is given.

#### CURRENT FICTION.

*A Mine of Faults.* Translated from the original manuscript by F. W. Bain. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In this volume, Mr. Bain, by official occupation principal of the Deccan College, Poona, has given us another of the charming stories introduced some years ago by his "Digit of the Moon." The present tale tells how woman, being, indeed, a "mine of faults," is, for that very reason, only the more adorable; "if women had no faults, half their charm would disappear." In true Indian fashion, the story is represented as related by Çiva to his wife. Once upon a time, there lived two kings, one having a daughter and the other a son. But these kings were hereditary foes, and the son threatened the country of his father's rival, who was utterly helpless before this peril. The young prince was a most thorough misogynist of the brave theoretical sort, able to prate finely about the shortcomings of all feminine kind. Against him is brought, by the minister of the imperilled kingdom, the foe that the invader had mocked, and before the "mine of faults," the mighty warrior is helpless.

The story, thus baldly outlined, must be read for its beauty to be appreciated. The princess, delicate and charming as she is crafty, awakens in Chand the love that he had scorned. And the development of this love is set forth, swiftly indeed—for in India love is ever at first sight—yet without a single false note. But Love wins a double victory, and herein lies one of the most delightful aspects of the tale. For the princess plays with the coolness of a master hand on each emotion of Chand, feeling none herself, aiming only to conquer him for the safety of her father's realm; until, at the last, the perfidy of her rôle overpowers her, in the face of Chand's devotion, and she reveals the plot. More than once, the psychology of love is touched upon with nice discrimination:

The tests of love are only two, the power

of recollection and the capacity to forgive. For false love forgets at once, and cannot forgive at all. But love that is really love forgives forever, and never forgets.

In beauty of diction and wealth of description the story is characteristic of Sanskrit literature at its best. Thus the princess is described:

... all unconscious of her own inexplicable charm, like a great blue lonely lotus-flower growing on a silent mirror of black water in an undiscovered forest pool, never even dreaming of looking at its own reflection in the water, towards which all the time it bends, as if to kiss it.

The Sanskrit device of paronomasia lends a special Indian enchantment to this exotic story, though it is the current fashion for Occidentals to object to this form of embellishment. Thus, "so great was his pleasure in its recollection," (p. 57), also means, punning on *smara*, "love, recollection," "so great was his pleasure in love of it [the mind-picture of the princess]"; I "will do what I can, in my weakness" (p. 84), may also mean "I will do what I can, as a woman," punning on *abala*, "weak, woman"; and "bee" (*bhramara*) in "are not all bees naturally rovers, and hard to satiate?" (p. 113) also means "lover."

The "Mine of Faults," like Mr. Bain's previous works, is declared on the title-page to be translated from a (Sanskrit) manuscript. Reviewers have, without exception so far as the present writer knows, denied this, holding that Mr. Bain is himself the author. It is true that his writing contains some Occidental touches, though, perhaps, the need of occasional adaptation to the general public might be urged in explanation of this fact. It is also true that the Sanskrit titles which he gives as the original designations of his stories are not to be found in catalogues of Sanskrit manuscripts; but neither are a number of indubitably genuine productions which are duly edited in the Benares Sanskrit Series, and elsewhere, to say nothing of works hitherto unknown which are frequently discovered in Indian libraries. The present reviewer, who has studied Mr. Bain's writings for a number of years, and specialized to some extent in Sanskrit romance, feels unable to join in the opinion that these stories are not just what they claim to be. At all events, he has repeatedly said that if they are translations, they are wonderfully good; if they are original, they are still more marvellous.

*Strictly Business.* By O. Henry. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

Twenty-three new stories from the unsleeping pen of our Fielding à la mode—twenty-three racy chapters added to his encyclopaedic account of the impudence, the energy, the recklessness, the vulgar loves, the fat and cynical materialism of proletarian America. Such are the themes of these varied



tales, addressed—to quote their maker—"to the man who sits smoking with his Sabbath-slipped feet on another chair, and to the woman who snatches the paper for a moment while boiling greens or a narcotized baby leaves her free." It is difficult to understand why this Sabbath sybarite and this troubled housewife do not prefer Boccaccio and the "Arabian Nights," unless they hold with Lucretius that it is sweet to contemplate from the window of a skyscraper the roaring tumult of Broadway. The reeking realism of the presentation is, contrary to received theories, rather intensified than diminished by O. Henry's growing fondness for commenting on his characters, his style, and the conduct of his plot. He appears to be spurning technique in the interest of the facts that come pelting at him. He obviously finds the much-advocated pure objectivity of the short-story something of a nuisance when he wishes to converse with his readers. Frequently hovering on the borders of philosophic digression, in "A Night in New Arabia" he steps boldly into a little essay on modern rich men, admirable for its nice distinctions: "The capitalist can tell you to a dollar the amount of his wealth. The Trust magnate 'estimates' it. The rich malefactor hands you a cigar and denies that he has bought the P., D. & Q. [superb characterization!] The caliph merely smiles and talks about Hammerstein and the musical lasses."

With a satirist carrying such a quiver, it is pleasant to tarry by the wayside and applaud his marksmanship. The stories in this volume show the glaring inequalities of verve and invention to be expected of a writer who exacts of his art the regular and diurnal fecundity of the journalistic Muse. But among several yarns betraying strain and pedestrian inspiration there are three or four of first-rate quality: the title story, "A Night in New Arabia," "Proof of the Pudding," and, perhaps best of all, "A Municipal Report." In the last, with the article on Nashville, Tennessee, from Rand & McNally doing strange service as ironical Greek chorus, he produces a little tragic drama of decayed Southern gentility, proving, in defiance of Frank Norris, that New York, New Orleans, and San Francisco do not monopolize the romance of real life. The effect is novel, and the pleasure is dependent upon the intrinsic interest of the matter as well as upon the artifice of presentation. Such work makes the reader hope that O. Henry may sometime have leisure to do his best more frequently.

*Hopalong Cassidy.* By Clarence E. Mulford. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

In this narrative of cowboy life in the arid Southwest, Cassidy of the salubrious prenomens is hero only by

courtesy. Half-a-dozen of his fellow-ranchmen speak as much, ride as hard, and shoot as frequently and as effectively as Cassidy. It was only the exigencies of the novelist's trade that impelled our writer to pitch upon one of the large number of cow-punchers that crowd his pages and make Cassidy the recipient of the hitherto untried affections of the pretty young daughter of the foreman of the ranch of which Cassidy's own ranch was the neighbor and rival. After a few tentative bits of love-making our author throws the girl frankly overboard, and sets out to tell how a handful of stout-hearted cowboys besieged a band of cattle-thieves on top of an inaccessible mesa. This part of the book has a sort of primitive interest. But until this part is reached, the story does not move at all, but hops along amidst a great deal of gunplay and local slang. There are indications that the writer has worked from close personal observation, and his talk is somewhat more natural than the average brand of Far Western dialects. But the treatment is amateurish and confused.

*The Personal Conduct of Belinda.* By Eleanor Hoyt Brainerd. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

An amiably silly story of a tour in Europe personally conducted by an enslaving young woman whose senior partner is at the eleventh hour prevented from taking her accustomed post. The composition of the party, its inter-relations, and international adventures, are mere farce. Yet gleams of England, Touraine, and Brittany, however fleeting, bring the inevitable, inalienable charm which covers a multitude of farces. The school-girl view of sight-seeing is worthily caricatured at the hands of the pink-and-white Amelia; but the rest of the comic relief does not conspicuously relieve. Nevertheless, in the foolish unreasoning hour a worse companion may be found than this book of improbable characters and impossible situations. To read it is aviation, but no bones are broken.

#### A HISTORY OF KENTUCKY.

*Kentucky in the Nation's History.* By Robert McNutt McElroy. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co. \$5 net.

Since this book represents, in the language of Professor McElroy, "a conscious departure from the customary method of dealing with State history," it is but fair that the theory upon which it has been constructed should be stated in the author's own words:

The real aim of the study of State history, as I conceive it, should be to add to our knowledge of the nation, as the day for the cultivation of a purely local patriotism—if, indeed, that day ever existed—has passed forever. To write of the history

of a State as though it were something apart from the nation is not only to violate the "unity of history," but also to deprive the nation of a valuable source of information concerning national events.

Conceding, as we readily do, that the writing of State history has too often proceeded upon antiquarian rather than historical lines, and that the affairs of the nation must always possess a larger interest than those of any of its constituent members, we nevertheless are compelled to think that the dictum above quoted not only fails to give the whole truth of the matter, but also involves some confusion of thought. For one thing, it implies, with almost brutal frankness, a degree of centralization *in posse* which, thank Heaven, has not yet come about even in these days of expanding Federal power. Moreover, so long as the American Union is constituted as it is, the several States composing it will continue to enjoy the right to lead lives not wholly overshadowed by the life of the nation; nor will they, we think, be deterred from doing so by fear lest thereby they "cultivate a purely local patriotism." Unless, then, the conception of "national" history is to be given such unusual extension as to make it include a summary of all that is going on in all the States at any given time—an extension which would obviously make the writing of the history of a federal government almost insuperably difficult—there will always be this parallel progression of nation and State; and the historian, bound to record what he finds rather than what he fancies ought to be, will not deem it necessary to depreciate the one in order to exalt the other.

Further, Professor McElroy seems not to have apprehended clearly the relation of an American State to the life of the nation of which it forms a part. A State is always played upon by two forces. On the one side is the nation, drawing it, whether it will or will not, into the current of national progress, moulding its thought and conduct by the silent power of a common law and a common opportunity, and commanding, at critical moments, its almost exclusive allegiance. On the other side is a host of purely local circumstances, not only dissociated in the public mind from concern for the national welfare, but also, as it happens, expressly reserved for State consideration by the Federal Constitution. Professor McElroy seems to regard the former of these two influences as the only one really worth while; unmindful of the fact, seen only the more clearly as the history of the States comes to be studied, that it is the condition of the public mind bred by local experiences and needs, quite as much as any public opinion developed by contact with the national life, that determines the fundamental attitude of a State towards national issues.

The reader, accordingly, who seeks to discover here the part played by Kentucky in the making of the American nation, will find only a portion of the story told. He will, indeed, learn, more fully than anywhere else, how Kentucky treated such distinctly national problems as were presented to it; but he will look in vain for an orderly account of the influence of Kentucky in formulating those problems, or for explanation of its fundamental attitude towards them. Of the life of the people, the nature and development of their government and law, their lines of political cleavage, what they thought of slavery and abolition, their problems of economic advancement (save in a single important instance), and their general cultural interests, Professor McElroy tells us little, and that only incidentally. "Kentucky in the nation's history" becomes, for him, a panorama of politics and war, a series of occasions in which the nation, mainly, be it remarked, for reasons not of Kentucky's choosing, enters the Kentucky field.

The list of topics of which the several chapters treat is the best illustration of what has just been said. Beginning with an account of the early westward migration, we have next an interesting sketch of Transylvania, "the last experiment in proprietary government," of Kentucky's share in the Revolution, and of the steps by which it entered the Union. Down to this point the author gives us real State history of a solid and commendable sort. Thenceforward, however, Kentucky is "nationalized." The remaining chapters, comprising four-fifths of the book, deal with the military adventures of Harmer, Wilkinson, and St. Clair; with Genet's intrigue, the struggle for free navigation of the Mississippi, and the acquisition of Louisiana; with the Burr conspiracy, the Kentucky resolutions of 1798 and 1799, and the War of 1812; the disastrous experience with State banks and paper money; the Mexican War and the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and the successful resistance to secession. Necessarily, these chapters are pretty closely connected, but they are nevertheless only a series of essays on the most important subjects in which national interests come in contact with those of the State.

While, however, we feel compelled to dissent from the theory of State history to which Professor McElroy commits himself, the specific substance of his volume calls, in general, only for praise. Use has been made, not only of the older printed sources, but also of the unrivalled collection of Kentucky material, some of it in manuscript, made by Col. Reuben T. Durrett of Louisville. The chapters on Transylvania, the Burr conspiracy, and the War of 1812, and the account of George Rogers Clark gain freshness, detail, and

accuracy from the use of this new material. Military historians will be interested in the author's explanation, apparently convincing, of the part played by the Kentucky volunteers at the battle of New Orleans, and his refutation of Jackson's hasty charge of cowardice. The chapters on Kentucky finance and the exciting events of 1860-61 are especially well done; while that on the resolutions of 1798 and 1799 makes still clearer the fact that the nullification for which Kentucky then stood was not, as later in South Carolina, a claim of right to be asserted by any one State for itself, but only by the States collectively. The closing words of the resolutions of 1799 are a protest, not a threat.

It is unfortunate that, in a book which, with all its limitations, is nevertheless a valuable addition to American historical literature, certain details by which one judges of a scholar's carefulness should not have been better attended to. Although authorities are freely cited, the form of citation is singularly variegated. Substantive statements of the text are quoted, now from semi-popular narratives like Fiske's "Critical Period" or Irving's "Life of Washington," now from such standard writers as Schouler, McMaster, or Von Holst, and now from manuscripts or early printed books. State documents are cited from newspapers, Federal statutes from the *Congressional Globe* or somebody's monograph, and the first Kentucky Constitution from the Durrett manuscript. "Hildreth's 'Second Series,'" "Babcock's 'American Nation Series,'" "Johnston's 'History of American Political Parties,'" and "Bourne Essays," are among the vagaries of which scholars, and even undergraduates, will make note. In a number of statements of a general nature the text shows inaccuracy; and certainly *The Genius of Universal Emancipation* ought not to be linked with the *Liberator* as a "Garri-son publication." Lastly, it should seem as though the combined efforts of author and publisher might have rid the volume of its erratic punctuation.

*Masters of the English Novel: A Study of Personalities and Principles.* By Richard Burton. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1.25.

With Prof. Richard Burton's plan for an examination of "Masters of the English Novel" as expressed in the words of his preface—the study of eighteenth-century "beginnings" and "developments," of Jane Austen and Walter Scott, of the French Influence, of Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot, Trollope, and others, of Hardy, Meredith, Stevenson, and the American Contribution—we are in fullest sympathy. One would very much like to conclude that Professor Burton had taken full advantage of his opportunity, and that his views,

if not remarkable for novelty, were at least safe and sane. But one regrets, first of all, that the successive chapters somehow fail to "pull together." And many of the details cause even the best-intentioned reader to doubt. For instance, is not the character given here of Fielding the man rather the old-fashioned one, somewhat shattered by later critical biographers, than that which one may fairly expect from an enlightened cicerone like Professor Burton? The lover of Jane Austen takes it ill, also, that a superficial criticism of his favorite should condemn the "plain speaking in her books, even touches of coarseness," echoing "the rankness which abounds in the Fielding-Smollett school." The admirer of the sturdy eighteenth-century novel, even though he be fully alive to the limitations of its artistry, is, too, tempted to question whether the novel "has grown on the whole more truthful with each generation"—at least to the extent which Professor Burton suggests; to question, no less, whether "the characters of English fiction to-day produce a semblance of life which adds tenfold to its power." Judged even in the twentieth century, Fielding's creations, notwithstanding their exaggerations, seem to the present reviewer more fully vitalized than Mr. James's pale shades or Mr. Howells's, and a thousand times more real than the monstrosities of the "red-blood" tribe. Indeed, Professor Burton shares the common vagueness as to what is "realism"; he uses the word very frequently, even describing Dickens as a "stalwart realist," which certainly he never was.

This book shows evidences of hasty preparation for the press. On page 5 we read of "Nast" where Nash was surely intended; we have twice *mis-en-scene* (pp. 167, 232), and once *grande monde* (p. 163), as specimens of French as she is writ. Twice are titles of Daudet's novels mangled as regards genders and accents; and Flaubert wrote "Salammbô," not "Salambo." Obviously, there is something wrong with the expression, "Je suis, j'y reste"; and the use of "proletariat" as a noun referring to an individual (Charles Dickens—see p. 194) grieves us almost as much as these more obvious slips—of which enough.

*New Zealand in Evolution, Industrial, Economic, and Political.* By Guy H. Scholefield, with an Introduction by Hon. W. Pember Reeves, Director of the London School of Economics. New York. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. \$3 net.

The story of New Zealand is not a long one. Discovered by the Dutch Tasman in 1642, it was not circumnavigated and mapped until nearly a century and a half later, when Cook took pos-



session of the islands for England. Though visited and to some extent settled upon by Europeans, it had no proper status and polity as a civilized land until two generations later, when, in 1840, it became formally a colony of Great Britain. Its evolution thence into a dominion, populous districts federated into a great United States, is a subject well worth attention from the world outside.

New Zealand has been called "the economic laboratory of the world." It is not quite as large as Italy, which it strongly resembles in its configuration; not quite equal in area to the British Isles, which it parallels remarkably in its physical and climatic conditions. The land has come to contain a population of a million, including a small per cent. of the vanishing Maoris, another small per cent. of civilized stocks other than Anglo-Saxon, but in vast preponderance a homogeneous body of English and Scotch. The British Isles themselves are less British than this far-away dependency. What the stock has been able to do during the seventy years since it was fairly organized into a society is the tale well-told in this book, fully fraught with interest and lessons.

The natural resources of New Zealand, varied and enormous, comprise great areas of arable and pasture-land, forests of the finest, seas teeming with food-fish, deposits of coal, iron, and gold, richly productive, as yet unmeasured. Here the British race has a free hand to develop under skies fitted to call out and preserve its energies at their best. The outcome is not disappointing, though New Zealand is far enough from being a Utopia. Studying details, we at once see that her career has been beset by grave embarrassments. First may be noted her remoteness and isolation: before competing in the great markets with her productions she has the heavy handicap of an ocean passage of thirteen thousand miles. It has been and still is necessary to fight out internally many a struggle with problems moral, economic, social, and political. There have been philanthropists who insisted that the native race should not be dispossessed; colonizers who projected feudal schemes, with a few great land-holders on one side and a multitude of tenants on the other; ecclesiastical enterprises, by which only the adherents of a particular church, under proper orthodox tutelage, were to be admitted to vast domains. The home government has perplexed by unintelligent interference; and, again, perplexed quite as much by unintelligent abstaining from interference. What powers should belong to the provinces and what to the central government at Auckland; whether *laissez faire* should have full sway or the state foster in paternal fashion; whether women should vote; to what extent

the state should own the land; most critical of all, perhaps, how to reconcile the demands of capital and those of labor, here fully organized and persistently militant—these questions have made of New Zealand a seething and fermenting society, shut up within itself in the far distant South Seas, to work out its own salvation.

Of this concentrated and turbulent evolution, Mr. Scholefield, an experienced New Zealand journalist, gives a calm, discriminating, and illuminative account. The land, though a loyal dependency of the British Crown, is to-day the most democratic and progressive country in the world. Female voting prevails, making the proportion of the electorate to the entire population one to one and eight-tenths. Here the suffragette may beat her hammer into a plough-share and her tongs into a pruning-hook; here the walking delegate walks no more, because he rides in an automobile; here the finger of the state is on land and industry to the extent of "socialism." Men of conservative instincts naturally stand aghast at such developments, and assert that New Zealand is going to the dogs; to which your true New Zealander may retort that he prefers the canine environment to the predatory beasts with whose rings civilization has so long been vexed. At any rate, all will agree it is well to have a laboratory or experiment-station where doubtful policies may be thoroughly worked out to their consummation, before they are applied in the larger societies of Europe and America.

*Modern Religious Problems.* Edited by Ambrose White Vernon. The Gospel of Jesus the Son of God, by George William Knox; The Founding of the Church, by Benjamin Wisner Bacon; Sin and Its Forgiveness, by William De Witt Hyde; The Fourth Gospel, by Ernest F. Scott; The Earliest Sources for the Life of Jesus, by F. Crawford Burkitt; Paul and Paulinism, by James Moffatt; The Church and Labor, by Charles Stelzle. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 50 cents each.

This series of brief essays on vital and difficult religious questions is evidently patterned on the successful *Religionsgeschichtliche Volksbücher*, which have had great influence in Germany in spreading information concerning the newer theories and results in Biblical criticism and the science of comparative religion. The authors of the German booklets are the first scholars of the universities, broadly evangelical in temper, but pronouncedly progressive and modern in theological position. A large number of the German tracts have been of decided merit, not merely by gathering up the results familiar to savants, but also by advancing knowledge and clarifying opinions in difficult fields of re-

search. They are consulted and quoted by specialists of all countries, despite their popular form and purpose.

It is high praise for the series edited by Dr. Vernon to say that the first volume of his *Modern Religious Problems* gives promise of like distinction and usefulness. Professor Bacon's brief essay on "The Founding of the Church" is a real contribution to the study of the apostolic age. It would be hard to find in a volume of any size a better statement of how the Christian Church came into being. It is a work which the student cannot afford to neglect, as well as a succinct statement for the laymen of the principal movements in early Christianity. President Hyde has done like thorough work in his discussion of the nature of sin and the Christian idea of divine pardon. His essay will go far to refute the charge, for which there is some justification, that the new theology does not deal seriously and worthily with the evil that men do. That progressive theologians may also have a gospel, which rings out a message with fervor and intense conviction, is made clear in the brochure of Professor Knox. Mr. Scott's volume is not so noteworthy: it is a résumé of his larger and better treatise of the same title, "The Fourth Gospel."

Dr. Burkitt's discussion of the origin and historical reliability of the first three gospels is excellent, as was to be expected from the author of "The Gospel Story and Its Transmission." On some accounts it would have been fortunate if this volume had been chosen to lead the series, since it illustrates so well the critical methods which have led to the changes in opinion with which these volumes are concerned. Dr. Burkitt defends the priority of Mark, but questions Harnack's success in restoring "Q," the source employed by Matthew and Luke. Dr. Moffatt, in his essay on Paul, has some correctives for opinions popularized by Professor Ramsay. Mr. Stelzle's volume belongs to the third division of the series, *Practical Church Problems*.

A wide and enthusiastic welcome to these volumes, and to others which are announced to follow them, would be an encouraging sign of healthful and intelligent interest in religious questions on the part of the American public. In so far as they exert influence they will tend to establish faith which can live in the light of modern times.

*Matilda of Tuscany.* By Nora Duff. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.50 net.

Matilda, the warrior maid of Holy Church, the heroine of many a battlefield, the prototype of Tasso's *Clarinda*; Matilda, the ruler and judge, the gracious *châtelaine* of Canossa, learned and beautiful and wise and valiant, "the wonder of Italy"—such is the Matilda

whose story is told for us in these pages; while, to the end that no faintest speck may dim the lustre of her perfection, the stern and implacable Hildebrand, whose influence swayed her every action, is depicted as a saint of God, intent only on reforming and purifying the church. It is, however, equally possible to regard Matilda as a virago and a fanatic, the tool of an ambitious and unscrupulous prelate who recklessly plunged the church into an interminable strife; who, by grasping at temporal power, destroyed for centuries the spiritual usefulness of the Papacy, and, by condemning the priesthood to an enforced celibacy, permanently corrupted the vast majority of the clergy. Which of these views we accept will doubtless depend upon whether we are Gueifs or Ghibellines; and we are all of us Gueifs or Ghibellines when reading Italian history.

That Miss Duff is whole-heartedly Guelf goes without saying; but, however strongly we may dissent from some of her conclusions, we shall hardly ever find ourselves in a position to quarrel with her facts. These are, for the most part, quite beyond cavil; and, since English and American readers have heretofore known but little of the great Countess of Tuscany, the work before us is one of unusual value. In most mediæval histories Matilda has appeared only as a shadowy figure in the background of the striking drama enacted at Canossa; in the present volume all the most salient points in her life have been exhaustively dealt with—her stormy childhood, her upbringing in the Apennines, her early appearance, clad in armor, on the battlefields of Lombardy and before the gates of Rome, her unwavering support of the Papacy, her able generalship, and her qualities of sovereign lady and upright ruler. Of her relations with her humbler dependents, on the other hand, the "lombardi" and "cattani" of her *castella* and *ville*, or the serfs and "coloni" who tilled her vast domains, we hear little or nothing. The stage is filled with popes and emperors, cardinals and abbots, knights and nobles—all the great ones of the earth; and the incidents of that constitutional, intellectual, and social advance which are to be found in the history of the nation itself, have no place in these pages. Yet, within the limits which she has assigned to herself, Miss Duff has produced a notable piece of work, alike scholarly and readable. Not only has she studied all the more important books dealing with her subject, whether Italian, German, French, or English, but she has had access to such contemporary manuscripts as remain to us, including the Vatican codex of Matilda's monkish chronicler Donizone or Domnizo, and many deeds of gift to the various monasteries throughout her lands.

The volume is illustrated from contemporary portraits and documents, and, so far as we have tested it, the index seems adequate. It only remains to call the attention of Dante students to the arguments which are here adduced in support of the theory that Matilda is to be identified with that

... donna soletta che si gla  
Cantando ed iscegliendo fior da fiore,  
Ond' era pinta tutta la sua via,

whom the poet encountered in the Terrestrial Paradise. We do not think that these arguments are conclusive. We are not convinced by them; but they are certainly interesting and well worthy of careful consideration.

*Bologna: Its History, Antiquities, and Art.* By Edith E. Coulson James. New York: Henry Frowde. \$4 net.

Of the many books on Italian cities which have literally poured from the press in the past few years, this is one of the best we have seen. Miss James writes straightforwardly, with so thorough a grasp on her material that the level of achievement is unusually even. She does not pretend to be a specialist in any direction; but she has eyes to see what is significant and skill to state it both clearly and agreeably.

Her sketch of the history of Bologna, filling more than a quarter of the volume, is sufficiently detailed. The description of Bolognese buildings and paintings claims most of the remaining space, and not unduly, because it includes the university. That famous institution she treats on all sides, from its origin in the eleventh century down to to-day. We do not recall any account of it in English of similar length that is equally satisfactory. By introducing some of the great academic figures, among whom she places Novella Calderini, Laura Bassi, Anna Morandi, and Clotilde Tambroni—Bologna's famous women professors—she adds to the human interest of her information. Indeed, she has been wise in putting in personal material wherever it was pertinent: for a book of this kind, whose object is primarily information and not interpretation, runs the risk of being dry unless it be vitalized by anecdote and biographical touches.

Miss James proves an excellent guide for the Museo Civico, with its Etruscan treasures, and for the picture gallery. With sound judgment, which would have shocked our grandfathers, she concentrates her attention on Francia among the painters, and dismisses the Caracci, Guido Reni, and Domenichino with the brief mention which their work at Bologna merits. Her painstaking study of Francia, at once just and enthusiastic, ought to draw new admirers to that delightful master, who wears better than Perugino and other contemporaries that have often been preferred to him. A

chapter on Bolognese "festas" completes the text to which notes and bibliography serve as credentials. A large number of well chosen illustrations bring Bologna directly before the reader.

Miss James has produced a work that is much more than a guide or book of reference. An Italian might, perhaps, remark that the characteristics which differentiate the Bolognese from the Parmesans, or the Florentines, are not clearly indicated; but this is a small matter, and few foreigners ever come to discern, as the Italians themselves do, the individual traits of the people of each city.

*A Group of English Essayists.* By C. T. Winchester. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.

This volume of essays on Jeffrey, Hazlitt, Lamb, De Quincey, John Wilson, and Leigh Hunt is one of the few recent books of criticism which deserve a permanent place in the library. Professor Winchester's modest introduction scarcely prepares one for the excellence of the work that follows. He disclaims discovery of new facts or reversals of established verdicts; the interest of these papers, he says, "if any interest they have, is that attending the informal discussion of a group of familiar and delightful English prose-writers." Furthermore, in his essay on Hazlitt, he seems rather to decline the judicial and to favor the interpretative approach, declaring that the chief function of the critic is to enjoy the best in literature and to convey that enjoyment to the reader.

Professor Winchester's informality, however, is a bit of graceful feigning. He admires—what right-minded person does not?—the ease, the purity, the colloquial swiftness of Hazlitt's prose; so far as style is concerned, he aims at the informality of Hazlitt. But his judgments are no more exclusively favorable than are those of that sensitive and disheartened Jacobin; his condemnation has all the point and precision of his praise. Nor is there anything random or discursive in his method. He sets to work in quite systematic fashion to etch the lineaments of his subjects through biographical study, and then to show how their literary powers and limitations were conditioned by their characters. The contributiveness of his portraiture one feels not so much in the detail as in the total effect of fairness, proportion, and completeness. In dealing with these fascinating and intensely personal writers, the temptation of the critic is to be personal, also to take sides and becloud the reader's vision. Except in the incidental case of Gifford, whom he is bent on proving an ass, Professor Winchester's service is steadily directed to clarifying impressions and balancing the judgment. He has, furthermore, the



gift of becoming intimate with his author which results from flexible sympathies and a relish for diverse qualities of thought, emotion, and style. He brings out with the greatest zest the lusty and boyish energy of John Wilson. Like Hazlitt, he can be just to Jeffrey and yet adore Lamb. He follows with especial delight the movements of the meditative and scaring imagination; and yet he distinguishes swiftly enough between true and false elevation—between Hazlitt's impassioned solemnities of feeling and the puffed and windy sublimities of De Quincey. These studies, we are told, "are, for the most part, the result of many pleasant hours in a college seminary room." Students who have enjoyed this sort of contact with good literature in college seminary rooms are pitifully few and heartily to be congratulated.

The book is so good that one can, perhaps, forgive the two or three instances of Homeric nodding in the brief retrospective glance at the essay-form. On the first page, Professor Winchester says that Montaigne's "*Essais*," excellently translated by John Florio in 1583, were at once popular in England, and Bacon, fourteen years later, borrowed their title for his famous little bundles of apothegm. Montaigne's essays were not complete in French till Mademoiselle de Gournay's edition was published in 1595, three years after the author's death. Florio's translation was licensed in 1599, but not published till 1603, six years after Bacon's first edition of essays; and we believe it would be difficult to prove any considerable acquaintance with Montaigne in England before 1600. By some odd fatality, Professor Winchester also puts the date of Cotton's version of Montaigne at 1680, five years too early. A little later, succumbing to the temptation of stylistic point and neglecting all historical considerations, he remarks of Addison: "He had nothing of importance to say; but he could say it with a suavity, humor, and grace that make the veriest nothings admirable." It is hard to understand how any student of the social life of Queen Anne's time could have made such a statement. It is the essence of Addison's triumph that he had many things of high importance to say on taste, literature, and morals, and that he conveyed them to his readers in a form as palatable as if they had been the merest trifles. Finally, we are informed, in a sentence which suggests that these introductory pages were left to be written by a malicious undergraduate, that with the new *Reviews* and *Magazines* of the nineteenth century "for the first time, we have that extended discussion of some one theme, popular in manner yet accurate in statement, and admitting high literary polish to which we now confine the name of essay." It is to be hoped that such almost inexplicable fa-

tuities will be removed from the second edition of this very entertaining book.

#### *The Great French Revolution, 1789-1793.*

By P. A. Kropotkin. Translated from the French by N. F. Dryhurst. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.25 net.

Until very recently most writers dealt only with the dramatic scenes of the French Revolution, or with the fortunes of the monarchy, of the legislative assemblies and political parties, and of the middle classes. Prince Kropotkin emphasizes the economic, and especially the agrarian, conditions and changes of the period. He interprets the wants and influence of the proletariat, whose apostle he is. He thinks historians have not yet done justice to "the true fount and origin of the Revolution—the people's readiness to take up arms." It is the land-hungry people who drove the stock-jobbing middle-class speculators and legislators to all that is great and good during the four years from 1789 to 1793. So there rumbles constantly through his stout volume the intimation that "Paris, during all this time, was in a state of profound agitation, especially in the faubourgs." In this Great Revolution the greatest period, in the opinion of the author, is that of the unchecked Jacobinism from the expulsion of the Girondists to the fall of Robespierre (31 May, 1793—27 July, 1794). During these thirteen months the great agrarian changes, so dramatically talked about on the famous night of August 4, 1789, were at last, after four years of middle-class resistance, carried out by a purified convention—under pressure from the *sans-culottic* masses. What the historians have chiefly studied of this period is the War and the Terror. "Yet these," says Kropotkin, "are not the essentials. The essential factor was the immense work of distributing the landed property, the work of democratizing and dechristianizing France." He emphasizes the principles of communism which found expression in the words or deeds of the period. Communism, he thinks, was the greatest inheritance which the Revolution bequeathed to us. He asserts a direct line of connection from the *enragés* of 1793 down through Babeuf, Fourier, Blanqui, and the International Working Men's Association of 1866-1878. The popular communism of the first two years of the Republic he regards as the source and origin of all subsequent communistic, anarchistic, and socialistic conceptions; and he is sure that it saw clearer and went much deeper in its analyses than modern Socialism. "Modern Socialism has added absolutely nothing to the ideas which were circulating among the French people between 1789 and 1794."

Prince Kropotkin's volume is another interesting example of the growing ten-

dency toward socialistic interpretations of history. It is based on serious study, chiefly in the British Museum. The author has made no attempt to examine the rich store of manuscript material in the French archives. Naturally, he follows Jaurès's "*Histoire Socialiste*" at many points. But from an historical point of view much of Prince Kropotkin's volume is open to criticism. He is frequently guilty of an overemphasis which amounts to a positive exaggeration. He cannot divest himself of his Russian revolutionary point of view, but injects, especially in the earlier part of his volume, many notions derived from his knowledge of the *mir* and recent conditions in Russia. When the Russian revolution became acute five years ago, newspaper correspondents crammed histories of the French Revolution into their portmanteaus as they started for St. Petersburg, and soon made half-baked analogies between France in 1789 and Russia in 1905. They were trying to interpret the present by the past. Prince Kropotkin has reversed the process. Nevertheless, in spite of these faults, we are inclined to think his work will find many readers. For it does describe in detail a phase of the French Revolution which historians have too much neglected, but which is of increasing interest to millions who call themselves Socialists.

*The German Element in the United States:* With special reference to its political, moral, social, and educational influence. By Albert Bernhardt Faust. In two volumes. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. \$7.50 net.

In the early accounts of the Germans in America two important pioneer historians appear, Franz von Löher, with his "*Geschichte und Zustände der Deutschen in Amerika*" (1847), and Isaac Daniel Rupp, the historian of the Germans in Pennsylvania, with his county histories and "30,000 German Names." These two men furnished the material for a great mass of local and antiquarian works on the Germans in this country. Then followed another group of serious investigators, represented by Rattermann, Seldensticker, Koerner, and Kapp, with the periodical *Der Deutsche Pionier* as the organ of their researches. Under the stimulus of this effort, a number of associations, such as the Pennsylvania German Society and the Society for the History of the Germans in Maryland were organized, and began to publish local studies within their respective fields. Toward the end of the nineteenth century a new epoch opened of systematic, academic research, represented by M. D. Learned and his collaborators in the *Americana Germanica* and *German American Annals*. Among the important general treatments of the

Germans in this last period too are worthy of mention: "The German and Swiss Settlements of Colonial Pennsylvania," by Oscar Kuhns (1901), and "Das Deutschtum in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nord-Amerika," by Julius Goebel (1904).

Such were the conditions under which the works prepared in competition for the Catherine Selpp prize were written. The book of A. B. Faust, professor at Cornell University, won the first prize, and invites critical attention. Faust presents two volumes, quite different in character. The first contains a rapid survey of German colonization and settlement in America, and is based for the most part upon printed materials accessible in America. It gives a fair and accurate account of the successive epochs of German immigration to America and of the part taken by the Germans in the settlement of the United States. Beginning with Tyrker of Lief Ericson's expedition to Vineland in the eleventh century and the German cosmographers, Behaim, Mercator, and Waldseemüller, he traces in chronological order the history of the Huguenot settlement at Port Royal in South Carolina (1562), the English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia (1607), the Germans in New York and Pennsylvania before 1700, the exodus of the Palatines to New York, Pennsylvania, and other colonies (1709-10), the pre-Revolutionary settlements in Virginia, the Carolinas, and New England, and the extension of German colonization, after the Revolution, into Kentucky, Tennessee, the Ohio and Mississippi Valleys, and the great West—the story of a marvelous German migration, in comparison with which the great Germanic movements of the fifth century in Europe seem numerically insignificant.

The second volume treats of the influence of the Germans as factors in American civilization. Here the author appears as an investigator, and contributes new and valuable information concerning German enterprise in the New World. He discusses successively the German influence upon American agriculture, manufactures, politics, education, fine arts, literature, social and moral forms of life. The results of social research are particularly apparent in the chapters on the German blood in the American people, viniculture, architecture, and the graphic arts, for which the author has drawn not only from published sources, but also from firsthand unpublished information. The chapter dealing with the statistics of the German element in the United States commands general attention. According to the author's conservative estimate, the number of Americans with German blood is 18,400,000, or 27 per cent. of the entire white population.

In the summaries of German enterprise in America an attempt is made

in each chapter to give the names of representative individuals and business firms that have introduced German ideas and methods into the various activities of American life. Naturally, many important names are omitted, but those given are intended to be typical, and are generally well chosen, although in some cases the author indulges in gratuitous personalities and praise of a kind that is always dangerous in dealing with the living.

The chapter on the social life of the Germans in America is timely, inasmuch as Americans are only beginning to understand the significance of European customs in the rapid evolution of new forms of American life—a process which is destined to revolutionize Puritan ideals, in spite of the heated temper of the opposing factions, both in the domain of religious and social forms.

It is not surprising that a work of such magnitude should contain minor mistakes, such as misprinted dates, which the informed reader will easily correct for himself. The Dunkers may reasonably object to being called "Dunkards," as this latter form is now going out of use. The German Catholics of Goshenhoppen might object to being transferred from Berks County to Montgomery County, Pa. Some Pennsylvania antiquarians reject the story of Moll Pitcher as mythical. The German origin of Abraham Lincoln has recently been proved to be unfounded. The Moravians will probably prefer their official title "Unitas Fratrum," or even the name "Herrnhuter," to the misleading name "United Brethren," which is so easily confused in the popular mind with the "United Brethren in Christ."

Casper Wistar was not the first glassblower in America, as Pastorius reports one at Philadelphia (Frankfort) in 1684. Abram Cassell did not will his entire collection to the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. Part of it went to Juniata College, and another part to Dr. M. G. Brumbaugh. Helmuth was not the first professor of languages at the University of Pennsylvania.

The author writes from the pro-German point of view and presents a favorable picture of the German influence in the growth of American institutions, without always carefully analyzing the complex ethnic processes involved. It is a delicate and difficult task to determine the exact value of the manifold and often invisible ethnic forces in the evolution of a new civilization, and it is easy to mistake the phenomena resulting apparently from a single impact, or as superficially recorded in political history.

Notwithstanding the eighty pages of bibliography with which the second volume closes, the study of American ethnic relations is in its infancy, and has only begun to attract the attention of trained

investigators. To this study, the allied sciences, philology, literature, sociology, psychology, and geography, in a word, ethnology in its broadest sense, must contribute. The local annals of many German settlements still lie under the dust of unordered archives and land offices. In addition to these, the vast collections of records in European archives still remain, for the most part, unexploited. A constructive history of the Germans in America will only be possible after the most thorough research into the special activities of the Germans in America has been made.

Thus viewed Faust's work becomes a record of what has been accomplished, an invaluable work of reference for the future investigator and student, and clears the way for fresh research, not only in the field of German effort in the United States, but in American ethnic relations in general.

## Notes.

Browning's "Men and Women," a verbatim reprint of the original edition, and Shelley's Prose, in the Bodleian Manuscripts, are about to be added to the Oxford Library of Prose and Poetry.

Forbes & Co. announce the following books for publication this spring: "The Girl Wanted," by Nixon Waterman; "Engaged Girl Sketches" and "The Six Great Moments in a Woman's Life," by Emily Calvin Blake; "Including Finnigin," by Strickland W. Gillilan; "The Saints and Sinners Calendar for 1911."

The State University of Iowa announces the intended publication of an elaborate annotated edition of Strabo's Geography. The plan contemplates an introduction on the life, travels, and sources of Strabo, a translation of the Geography, and extended notes, much after the manner of Frazer's Pausanias. It is hoped that such an edition will prove acceptable to scholars in various fields, since no satisfactory edition of Strabo exists, and he is our most important authority for the geography and topography of much of the ancient world. The work of the edition will be carried forward as rapidly as is consistent with thoroughness. The plan of the edition is due to Dr. Charles H. Weller, Dr. David M. Robinson, and Dr. Albert T. Olmstead. Dr. Weller is general editor, Dr. Robinson will make the translation. The various portions of the work are assigned to specialists.

"The Modern Criminal Science Series," selected from the works of European criminologists, by Prof. John H. Wigmore, president of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, is announced by Little, Brown & Co. The series will include the following volumes: "Criminal Psychology," by Hans Gross, professor of criminal law in the University of Graz, Austria; "Modern Theories of Criminology," by Bernal de Quiros of Madrid; "Criminal Sociology," by Enrico Ferri, professor of criminal law and procedure in the University of Rome; "The Individualization of Punishment," by Raymond Saleilles, professor of



comparative law in the University of Paris; "Crime, Its Causes and Remedies," by Cesare Lombroso, late professor of psychiatry and legal medicine in the University of Turin; "Penal Philosophy," by Gabriel Tarde, late magistrate in Paris and professor in the College of France; "Criminality and Economic Conditions," by W. A. Bonger, doctor in law of the University of Amsterdam; "Criminology," by Raffaele Garofalo, late president of the Court of Appeals of Naples; "Crime and Its Repression," by Gustav Aschaffenburg, editor of the *Monthly Journal of Criminal Law and Criminal Law Reform*.

The Sturgis & Walton Co. announce the following spring publications: "The History of the Confederate War; Its Causes and Its Conduct. A narrative and Critical History," by George Cary Eggleston; "Ragna," by Anna Costantini; "The Fulfillment," by Alice P. Raphael; "The Green Cloak," by Yerke Davis; "Inns, Ales, and Drinking Customs of Old England," by F. W. Hackwood. "Jacqueline of the Carrier Pigeons, a story of the Siege of Leyden," by Augusta Hulell Seaman; "An Out-of-Door Diary for Boys and Girls, a Nature Notebook for Young People," illustrated and arranged by Marion Miller; "The Garden Muse: Poems for Garden Lovers," gathered by William Aspenwall Bradley; "Reptiles of the World," by Raymond L. Ditmars; "Comets," by Henry W. Elson; "Star-Gazer's Hand-Book, a Brief Guide for Amateur Students of Astronomy," by Henry W. Elson; "The Lost Art of Conversation, Selected Essays," edited with an introduction by Horatio S. Krams; "Stories of Authors," by Edwin Watts Chubb; "The Young Farmer's Practical Library," Ernest Ingersoll, general editor, including "Home Waterworks," by Prof. Carleton J. Lynde; "From Kitchen to Garret," by Virginia Terhune Van de Water; "The Satisfactions of Country Life," by Dr. James W. Robertson; "Neighborhood Entertainments," by Renée B. Stern; "Roads, Paths and Bridges," by L. W. Page; "The Farm Mechanic," by Prof. L. W. Chase; "Health on the Farm," by Dr. L. F. Harris; "Farm Machinery," by Prof. J. B. Davidson, and "Electricity on the Farm";—"Children's Gardens for Pleasure, Health, and Education," by Henry G. Parsons; "The Teachers of Emerson," by John S. Harrison; "An Outline of Individual Study," by G. E. Partridge; "Each for All and All for Each," by John Parsons; "Roman Cities of Northern Italy and Dalmatia," by A. L. Frothingham; "The Court Series of French Memoirs," translated from the French and edited by E. Jules Méras, including, "The Royal Family in the Temple Prison," by Cléry (Jean Baptiste Cant-Hanet); "Recollections of Léonard, Hairdresser to Marie Antoinette," by Léonard; "During the Reign of Terror: The Journal of Grace Dalrymple Elliott"; "Secret Memoirs of the Regency (The Minority of Louis XV)," by Charles Pinot Duclos;—"West Point and the United States Military Academy, a Brief History," by Edward S. Holden.

Spring publications of the Cassells include the following: Fiction—"The Rust of Rome," by Warwick Deeping; "A House of Lies," by Sidney Warwick; "The Shoulder Knot," by Mrs. Henry Dudeney; "Who Shall Judge?" by Silas K. Hocking; "Blind Hopes," by Helen Wallace; "The Wreathed Dagger," by Margaret Young; "A Daughter of the Storm," by Capt. Frank H. Shaw; "The Se-

cret Paper," by Walter Wood; "London and a Girl," by Alfred Gibson; "Beyond this Ignorant Present," by S. L. T. D. General literature—"Napoleon in His Own Defence," by Clement K. Shorter; "Puritanism and Art," by Joseph Crouch; "Steamships and Their Story," by E. Keble Chatterton; "Electrical Distributing Networks and Transmission Lines," by Prof. Alfred Hay; "Australia: The Making of a Nation," by John Foster Fraser; "The Faith of a Layman," by William Frederick Osborne; "The Dictionary of English History," edited by Sidney J. Low and F. S. Pulling, M.A., new and revised edition; "A Lad of London, and Some of His Neighbors," by George Haw; "Janey Canuck in the West," by Emily Ferguson; "Cassell's Royal Academy Pictures and Sculpture"; "Home Life of the Ancient Greeks," translated from the German of Blunner by Alice Zimmermann; "A Bible Commentary for English Readers," edited by Bishop Ellcott; "Farm Equipment," by Primrose McConnell; "The Ideal Garden," by H. H. Thomas; "Dogs and all About Them," by Robert Leighton; "Gardening Difficulties Solved," by H. H. Thomas; "The Thames and Its Story, from the Cotswolds to the Nore"; "Cassell's Dictionary of Gardening," edited by Walter P. Wright; "Cassell's Little Classics," introductions by G. K. Chesterton, Austin Dobson, A. T. Quiller-Couch, and J. A. Hobson; "How to Know the Trees," by Henry Irving; "Golf Made Easy," by Mark Allerton and R. Browning; "Plain Needlework and Cutting-Out," by Mrs. F. B. Townend; "The Complete Farmer," by Primrose McConnell; "Japan: The Eastern Wonderland," by D. C. Angus; "Cassell's Guide to London," new edition; "The Art and Curio Collector's Guide to London," edited by C. W. E. Jerminham; "My Little German Travelling Companion," by Ludwig Kettner; "A First Sketch of English Literature: From the Earliest Period to the Present Time," by Prof. Henry Morley; "Makers of History," by A. E. McWilliam; "Modelling from Nature," by Lillian Carter; "A History of England," by H. O. Arnold Forster; "The Case Against Christian Science," by Stephen Paget; "First at the Pole, a Story of Arctic Adventure," by Capt. Frank H. Shaw.

We welcome heartily a new edition, after a period of some ten years, of Myra Reynolds's "Treatment of Nature in English Poetry Between Pope and Wordsworth," published at the University of Chicago Press. The original portion of the book has undergone, and indeed needed, little revision. The work has been enlarged, however, by the addition of two new chapters on Painting and Gardening. As a book of reference the work is highly valuable; little of significance in eighteenth-century England, in literature at least, has escaped the author's dragnet, and she has arranged and classified her material so as to show very clearly the gradual change from the classical (she should have called it pseudo- or neo-classical) school of Pope to the romantic school of Wordsworth. That she is herself unreservedly romantic in her taste, does no particular harm in a book which is more likely to be consulted for its material than its critical philosophy. And she is certainly right in so far as the pseudo-classical writers were weakest just where the romanticists were strongest.

The "Papers and Proceedings" of the

1909 conference of the American Library Association, just issued, make a stout volume of 461 pages, full of interesting matter—interesting not merely for librarians, but for all who take an intelligent interest in the educational movements of the day. Librarians are wont to regard themselves as workers in the educational field quite as much as distributors of books for recreational purposes and conservators of material for the scholar and investigator. Under the circumstances it is somewhat strange that the proceedings of the national association of librarians are not for sale, but merely distributed to members of the association. Librarians wish to spread their idea of the mission of the book, and their influence as missionaries of the book, among all classes of our people, and complain even of the fact that they are not recognized as a profession to the same extent as, for instance, the teachers. Perhaps one reason for this is that their official proceedings are not available for outsiders. This is particularly to be regretted, as much the most thoughtful contributions to our library literature and the most authoritative statements from the leaders in the profession of librarianship, are to be found in these proceedings. Librarians, when they write in their professional journals, are wont to treat too exclusively of matters of technical detail, or to write down to younger colleagues and beginners, or to treat their subjects in a somewhat namby-pamby fashion. Very few of them contribute articles on library matters of general interest to the periodical press at large, and the number of books on library affairs and management is exceedingly small, compared with the literary output of the teaching profession. The reason is not far to seek; librarians are as a rule much more confined to their offices and much more engrossed in all sorts of detail matters than teachers; consequently, what time they are able to give to writing must in the great majority of cases, be taken from their scant hours of rest and recreation. Both the libraries, and the public, are losers.

It would be well, therefore, if the proceedings of the librarians at Bretton Woods could be put in the hands of and read by a much larger number of persons who are interested in educational affairs than is possible now. While containing much technical matter, the volume has several papers of more general interest. The topic at one of the general sessions was, "The School and the Library"; another session was given to a symposium on recent books about boys. And through all the discussions we see the idea of coordination of forces. The president, Mr. Gould of McGill University, in Montreal, laid before the assembled librarians a plan for a library system that would cover the whole continent. From California, and from Washington County, in Maryland, came reports of efforts to spread the benefits of coöperation over a smaller area. Mr. Hill of Brooklyn, and Mr. Hodges of Cincinnati, the new president, told what they are doing in their respective communities to attack the problem of dead books. The address of Dr. Crothers, "A Fairy Story for Librarians," whose genial wit and pleasant banter delighted all, is not printed in the proceedings volume, but is found in the *Atlantic Monthly*.

for December, under the title, "The Convention of Books."

The latest (eighth) volume of the *Jahrbuch deutscher Bibliotheken* begins the extension of the scope of the list of libraries, as was forecast in the previous volume, by inclusion of a number of libraries belonging to learned societies, government bodies, and the like. The additions in the present volume come chiefly from Berlin and Munich; they include the important library of the Seminar for Oriental Languages in Berlin, as well as those of most of the Imperial ministries and other organs of the Federal government, while the additions from Munich are largely the libraries of religious corporations. The most important of the new statutes and regulations is the law about the examination for diplomas to enter the intermediary service at the scientific libraries and the public library service. In Germany there is a wide gap between the scientific libraries intended to further learned studies and those more recently founded *Volkbibliotheken* which serve the masses of the population for educational and recreative purposes. For entrance into the service of university libraries and others of that grade a university degree is almost necessary, whereas, for the lower grade of work contemplated in the new degree, the requirements for admission to the highest grade of the gymnasium or *Realgymnasium* is thought sufficient. In addition to this, the candidates for diplomas are required to pass an examination in library administration, bibliography, and literary history that seems to be considerably stiffer than the examination required for degree in any of our library schools. Particularly the requirements in the history of science and literature are raised to a high standard (Leipzig: Harrassowitz).

"Charles Dickens and his Friends," by W. Teignmouth Shore (Cassell & Co.), is a well-made book belonging to that large class which Solomon mentions with mild despair. It is adorned with eighteen familiar illustrations. Its substance is drawn from the inexhaustible mine of Dickensiana, eked out with the froth from the biographies of a dozen contemporaries. Its structural character may be inferred from the titles of the chapters; here are a few specimens: 1843, Oddments and Eloquence, Wilkie Collins, More Playing, Other Friends, The Wearing of a Beard. We are tempted to cry in the words of the immortal doctor, "Sir, a man might write such stuff forever, if he would abandon his mind to it." It is the ultimate dilution and disintegration of biography. Yet we would not speak of it with undue severity; as Uncle Toby remarked to the fly, "This world surely is wide enough to hold both thee and me." It will make an immediate appeal to every lover of undistinguished chatter.

The nature of "The Strength of England," by J. W. Welsford (Longmans), is partly explained by its sub-title, "A Politico-economic History of England from Saxon Times to the Reign of Charles the First." Death prevented the author from continuing it to the present day. Mr. Welsford was primarily interested in England's commerce; for in this, he thought, lay, and lies, her strength. He was at pains to give a much fuller account of England's international position than is ordinarily

found in shorter histories. He believed that political and economic changes are constantly reacting upon each other. Therefore, he sought to show how England's commercial relations have affected the development of various classes of society, and even brought about or thwarted great constitutional changes. He asserts, for instance, that "the failure of Simon de Montfort's scheme of constitutional monarchy was due, not to his legal reforms, but to a vast economic change which he tried to carry out while he was engaged in political reforms." Mr. Welsford's book is stimulating reading. It sets many episodes of English history in a fresh, strong light. On the other hand, owing to the author's point of view, it is altogether one-sided; even as an economic interpretation of English history it is one-sided, because of its over-emphasis of commerce and its comparative neglect of industry and agriculture.

The new volume (No. VI), of Publications of the Bostonian Society contains much that is of more than local interest. The story of the life of John Wilson, the first pastor of Boston, told by Frank E. Bradish, shows what sacrifices were made by some of the early settlers of this country. Born in Windsor Castle, grandnephew of the archbishop of Canterbury, an Eton boy and graduate of King's College, Cambridge, he might have aspired to almost any dignity in the Church of England. Though his domestic and scholastic training prejudiced him strongly against the Puritans, study and inquiry led him to accept their views, and he spent fifteen years as an itinerating preacher in the small towns of southern England. Then for thirty-seven years he labored in Boston, one of its very first settlers, for the upbuilding of the land of his adoption. The first year his soul-stirring sermons were preached under a tree in the open air; and there is little doubt that he had much to do with the founding of Harvard College.

From the University of Chicago Press we have a study of the "Atonement" which bears the names of three authors, E. D. Burton, J. M. P. Smith, and G. B. Smith. The scope of the book is indicated by the sub-title: "Biblical Ideas of Atonement, Their History and Significance." The authors propose to give not a theory of the significance of the death of Christ but an historical account of the various ideas of atonement to be found in the Old Testament (treated by Dr. J. M. P. Smith), in some of the non-canonical Jewish documents within the period of Late Judaism, and in the New Testament (treated by Dr. Burton). The results of literary criticism are assumed; only occasionally does a footnote refer to an alternative view. All but the last two chapters have already appeared in the *Biblical World* substantially in the present form. In the new chapters Dr. G. B. Smith endeavors, in the brief space assigned him, to estimate the value of the Biblical teachings and to relate them to the ethical spirit of the present. The volume is to be commended to the general reader for whom it is especially designed.

"At the Library Table," by Adrian Hoffman Joline (Richard G. Badger), reveals once more the rambling bookishness of this whimsical author. Four of the essays are concerning bookish things in general; two,

on the novelists William Harrison Ainsworth and G. P. R. James, keep reasonably to a theme. But here Mr. Joline is not renouncing his usual zig-zag method. The chance of owning interesting autographs by these writers makes him for the nonce systematic. We like him best when he sits in his library and reacts to the random impressions evoked from the smell of old morocco and calf. His art is not very fine, but it is genuine and personal. The full flavor of the great rambler is not in him, but he is sealed of the tribe. His work recalls how scantily the real essay—that syllabub of whim and gusto—has been cultivated in America. Irving, of course, and Dennie of the old Philadelphia *Portfolio* were born to it. Lowell and Curtis dallied with it here and there, when graver concerns permitted. Howells could do it were his humanitarian concern abated. But literary rambling is an art in itself and hardly to be followed successfully by one who heedlessly permits his writings to be systematic between times. Here Mr. Joline and the late author of "Salad for the Solitary and the Social" enjoy a modest distinction. Neither is much read, but since each has cultivated his garden in an exceptional spirit the classifiers of the future must reckon with them. For present purposes Mr. Joline is a pleasant companion. In the pages of some remote dissertator on the American essay he may even attain a pale immortality. We find him trying only in his rare lapses into the earnest vein, as in his comment on Sumner. Irrespective of the merits of the case, the taste and the air of finality of the observations are out of tone. From his collections Mr. Joline brings to light some new and entertaining matter anent the squabble of Dickens, Ainsworth, and Cruikshank, and the friendships of that good and amiable man G. P. R. James. Incidentally, the vain and repetitious ways of encyclopædists and semi-critics generally are amusingly exposed. The book is fastidiously made.

Eleven years ago, in reviewing "The Martyrdom of an Empress," in these columns, we pointed out the improbability of its having been written by any one having even an elementary knowledge of Austrian affairs, much less, as it purported to have been, by a lady of the court of the Empress Elizabeth. A few years later the same author unblushingly turned from a fierce accuser of Francis-Joseph as a monster of cruelty into his fervent panegyrist, in her "Keystone of Empire." We have now, if not from the same hand, at least from the same dull scissors and soiled paste-pot, "The Real Francis-Joseph" (Appleton), for which "Henri de Weindel" stands as sponsor, and the facts for which are stated in the preface to have been communicated to the author by "a person in Austria particularly well informed about the court of Vienna." Even the same blunders may be found in this book as in the "Martyrdom of an Empress." Thus, the Archduke Albert, cousin of Francis-Joseph, appears once more as his uncle; but the later book swarms with even more striking evidences of its spurious authorship. No one who had ever set foot on Austrian soil, or even read a decent book about Austrian affairs, could have written that "one of the reasons (but one of the reasons only) of the hostility of the Hungar-



ians toward the person of their Sovereign lies in his ignorance of their language"; nor could any one who had ever heard of the characteristics of Vienna, much less been there, have said of the cheap one-horse cabs of that city known as "comfortables" that they are "very expensive to hire." A hundred similar proofs of the author's absolute ignorance of his subject might be adduced, but they are trifles as compared with the tone, purpose, and literary skill of the book. Like its predecessors in this delectable series of scandalous "revelations," it appeals to the duller intellect, and is worse than worthless.

Robert Wilson Patterson, president of the Chicago Tribune Company, and editor-in-chief of that paper, died in Philadelphia last week, at the age of sixty. He graduated at Williams College in 1871, began newspaper work in that city soon afterward, and in 1873 became connected with the *Tribune*, of which he was made editor-in-chief upon the death of Joseph Medill.

The Rev. Dr. Charles Orrin Day, who was president of Andover Theological Seminary and Bartlett professor of homiletics and practical theology there from 1901 to 1908, died in Andover, Mass., last Tuesday, at the age of fifty-eight. He was a native of Catskill, N. Y., and graduated at Yale in 1872 and at Andover in 1877, in which year he entered the Congregational ministry. He held a pastorate at Brattleboro, Vt., in 1885-98, and was secretary of the Congregational Educational Society in 1898-1901.

Mrs. Allan Macnaughton, widely known under her maiden name, Myra Kelly, as a writer of stories of child life in New York's East Side, died at Torquay, England, on March 30. She was a native of Dublin, Ireland, and came to this country in her childhood with her father, Dr. James E. Kelly, who established a practice in the East Side. She was educated at the Horace Mann School, in this city, and at Teachers' College, of Columbia University, where she graduated in 1899, and began to teach at Public School 147, on East Broadway. Here she got the material from which she wrote the sketches that brought her fame and fortune. In 1905 she was married to Allan Macnaughton. Her books include "Little Citizens," "Isle of Dreams," and "Wards of Liberty."

Dr. George McC. Theal, foreign member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, has recently completed the second volume of his three-volume series on the "History and Ethnography of Africa, south of the Zambezi," from the settlement of the Portuguese at Sofala, in September, 1505, to the conquest of the Cape Colony by the British in September, 1795. The volume in question is entitled, "The Foundation of the Cape Colony by the Dutch" (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.). It is an exceedingly thorough and detailed record of early Dutch effort in Africa, containing 523 pages, invaluable to the historical investigator and also not uninteresting to the general reader.

Félix Tournachon, the French caricaturist photographer and aeronaut, died in Paris recently, at the age of ninety. For more than fifty years he had been known by the pseudonym, "Nadar," under which he published "Panthéon Nadar," containing picturesque studies of his "most famous contemporaries," and contributed frequently to the

*Revue Comique*, which he founded in 1849. He was also much interested in aviation, and about fifty years ago constructed the "Géant," the largest balloon which had then been made, and in which he made a hazardous journey from Paris to Hanover. He had also lectured and published books on heavier-than-air flying machines, of which he invented and manufactured a type which he named "aeromotive," an enterprise which ruined him financially; and he made the first military balloons used during the siege of Paris. He is said to have been the original of Jules Verne's hero, Michel Ardent. In the late forties he published in his paper, *Le Commerce*, a translation of Edgar Allan Poe's story, "The Murders of the Rue Morgue," which seems to have been the first introduction of Poe to French readers.

## Science.

Two recent books from the pens of well known authorities, "The Great White Plague," by Edward O. Otis (Crowell & Co.) and "Tuberculosis, a Preventable and Curable Disease," by S. Adolphus Knopf (Moffatt, Yard & Co.), deserve a brief commendation in this column. They are popular treatises of unusual excellence and clearness, and of reasonable length; well worthy of a wide and attentive circle of readers. Dr. Otis tries to present the more important facts concerning the disease, to explain the principles of treatment and the value of cooperation, and to make clear to the layman that any case of tubercular trouble, if taken in hand early, has an exceedingly good chance of recovery. All this is done in simple language, here and there a little too diffusely, but on the whole so as to give even a very ordinary reader sound ideas as to what the individual and the community may do to eradicate tuberculosis. This book is in parts supplemented by that of Dr. Knopf, who concerns himself less with the disease than with the more practical questions of the care of patients at home or in establishments, and with the arrangement of the house or the sanatorium for this purpose, seeking to awaken also popular interest in the means at our disposal for combating the disease. This is illustrated by a large number of exceedingly good pictures to show the methods of the fresh air treatment at home, in schools, and in numerous public and private institutions. Dr. Knopf explains at some length his ingenious window-tent. The window-tent of the late Dr. Charles Denison is in many ways perhaps a more advantageous arrangement; it was at least worthy of mention.

"Parenthood and Race Culture, an Outline of Eugenics," by C. W. Saleeby (Moffatt, Yard & Co.), professes to be an authoritative general introduction to the subject. The most casual reader of the preface will perceive that the eugenist, a name for which Dr. Saleeby is proudly responsible, takes himself and his cult very seriously, apparently believing that the human race has hitherto paid little heed to its own advancement. Eugenics is declared to be "a science and a religion," whose central doctrine is not a new birth, but a better birth, the very best kind of a birth; and to this attach themselves all sorts of considerations, prenatal and postnatal, which

can possibly affect the child—a most comprehensive programme. The book is made up of nearly equal parts treating what are called the theory and the practice of eugenics. The first of these, entering various fields of discussion and culling freely the fruits of many laborers, is largely justificatory of the proposition that there shall be no destruction of the unfit, but a preservation of all children, since a well-developed eugenistic spirit will prevent or limit the creation of the unfit. There is much interesting matter here, although rather too long drawn out in the presentation. The problem of heredity is put as though prevailing doctrines had a finality which the community is bound to accept as an absolute guide for its own breeding. At least this is the impression, which many readers will get, despite a considerable amount of qualification. The second part does not quite fulfil the promise of its title. It gives an account, often repetitious, of the conditions which may make persons undesirable candidates for parenthood rather than any definite directions as to the control of parentage, except perhaps in the general belief that the matrimonial state is to be preserved, with the corollary that the conversion of Mrs. Grundy "to the eugenic idea" is to be sought rather than her abolition. In one appendix is a short account of the recently founded Eugenics Education Society. In another Dr. Saleeby briefly commends a goodly number of books which he regards as important for the progressive and earnest eugenist.

Those whose acquaintance with William Thomson (Lord Kelvin) is confined to a knowledge of his scientific work will be delighted with the book from the Macmillan Co., entitled "Lord Kelvin's Early Home." It is principally taken from the notes and diary of his eldest sister, Mrs. Elizabeth King, edited by her daughter. We have a picture of a beautiful family life, and of a fascinating group of children, watched over and taught after the mother's death by their father, James Thomson. The father led a busy and important life, first as a teacher of mathematics in Belfast and later as a professor in the University of Glasgow. Besides his professional duties, he found the time to give his six children practically all their educational training. How successful he was may be judged by their achievements. We get a charming impression of the future Lord Kelvin, who was evidently his father's favorite: "Partly," Mrs. King says, "perhaps on account of his extreme beauty, partly on account of his wonderful quickness of apprehension, but most of all, I think, on account of his coaxing, fascinating ways, and the caresses he lavished on his 'darling papa.'" When the family removed to Glasgow, private instruction and reading continued; but, with the growth of the children, outside influences began to enter, and soon William and his elder brother James were attending classes in the college and making a start in the scientific work which was to engross their lives. At the age of sixteen William published his first paper in connection with his reading of Fourier's "Théorie de la chaleur," a book which made a profound impression on his mind; the next year he began his brilliant career at Cambridge. The account of his home life ends with his election to the profes-

sorship of natural philosophy in Glasgow, the chair which he made so famous during the fifty years of his occupation.

The principles of dry-farming, the paradox of modern agriculture, are again treated in William Macdonald's book on the subject ("Dry-Farming, Its Principles and Practice," the Century Co.). By conserving the soil-moisture through deep and thorough tillage, lands with a rainfall of less, often much less, than thirty inches can be made to yield grain crops more cheaply than irrigated land. The book emphasizes the need of care in choosing a dry-farm. Soil, sub-soil, and water-table, with average rainfall and rate of evaporation, should be accurately ascertained beforehand, since any one of them can be a cause of failure to "a business man calling himself a farmer." Methods vary according to locality, but there seems to be a growing agreement that the usual alternate-year summer fallow should be accompanied by constant culture to kill weeds and conserve moisture. By these means three great Western areas, containing lands that can never be adequately irrigated, are being reclaimed from barrenness. The pictures in the book are interesting; the book itself could have been made so, but it is badly planned.

Dr. Otto Hermes, founder of the Berlin Aquarium, died in Berlin recently, at the age of seventy-one.

Samuel Ward Loper, curator of the museum of Wesleyan University, died at Middletown, Conn., last week, at the age of seventy-four.

Dr. J. P. C. Foster, head of the Connecticut State Tuberculosis Commission, died in New Haven last week at the age of about sixty-five. He was one of the first American physicians to use Dr. Koch's tuberculin in treating tuberculosis.

George Leonard Vose, professor of civil engineering at Bowdoin from 1872 to 1882, and at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology for four years thereafter, died at Brunswick, Me., last week. He was born in 1831, and was educated at the Lawrence Scientific School. In 1860-64 he was an associate editor of the *American Railway Times*.

## Drama.

Since last we noticed the excellent First Folio Shakespeare of Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., two instalments have brought the edition six volumes nearer completion. The new plays now available are "Anthony and Cleopatra," "Titus Andronicus," "Tymon of Athens," "Pericles, Prince of Tyre," "Tragedie of Cymbeline," and "Troilus and Cressida." The editing shows the same care and thoroughness as in the earlier volumes, and we can only repeat what we have already said several times, that, for those who do not object to reading Shakespeare in the original spelling and punctuation, this is in general the most convenient edition on the market. The arrangement is admirable, and the helps to understanding and studying are full without being obtrusive. The introductions, which form the least important part of the edition, are perhaps open to criticism. The

editors, Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke, are of the old-fashioned sort who stand for their author through thick and thin. One catches scarcely an echo in their writing of that rapidly growing revolt from the romantic enthusiasm of an earlier generation. They are ready to vindicate to Shakespeare every possible play or portion of collaborated play, and all that he wrote is supremely good. Miss Porter's introduction to "Pericles" is a case in point. She will have nothing of Wilkins as maker of this play, which to her has a "final adorable distinctive grace" in the issue of the plot.

The revised edition of William Vaughn Moody's play, "The Faith Healer," has been published (Macmillan). This is the version which was produced recently in this city, with but indifferent success, after the play as originally written by the author had failed to please Western audiences. The changes made—it is understood at managerial suggestion—solely with a view to increased theatrical effect, are not improvements in any way so far as stage representation is concerned, while they give to the piece a melodramatic and artificial quality which it did not possess before. It is seldom that tinkering of this sort proves beneficial. The great weakness of the play, in its first estate, as has been pointed out in this journal more than once, was the vagueness of its intent and meaning, as if the author were himself in doubt concerning the true nature of the phenomena with which he had undertaken to deal. This defect is as conspicuous in the revised version as in the old, while the development of the story is less artistic. It is doubtful whether the work in either form—notwithstanding its dramatic and imaginative force—could win a great popular success in the theatre, but its cool reception in New York—whatever may have been the case in the West—was due mainly to the uninspired and unsympathetic performance of the leading actor.

The "Pocket Lexicon and Concordance to the Temple Shakespeare" (Macmillan) furnishes a large amount of useful information in compact and handy shape. Its definitions are clear and seldom superfluous, while the exact meaning of obsolete words and phrases is often happily elucidated by reproduction of ancient prints. The use of older glossaries is copious and, as a rule, judicious, and the list of authorities quoted includes the names of the most respected commentators.

"The Tocsin," a drama of the Renaissance, by Esther Brown Tiffany (Paul Elder & Co.), though scarcely worthy, from either the literary or dramatic point of view, of the luxurious typographical form in which it is published, is by no means a bad specimen of religio-romantic melodrama. The scene is laid in and near Florence, in the days of Pope Sixtus V, when the plague was raging, and the atmosphere of the period, with its contrasted episodes of dissolute wealth, squalid misery, clerical laxity and profligacy and fanatical religious zeal, is cleverly reproduced. The principal figures are a brilliant and worldly Abbot, once the most fervid preacher of his day, and a saintly Magdalen, who, in her early youth, was converted from the error of her ways by his inspiring eloquence. Her chief desire

is to meet once more with the evangelist who has long been her ideal. She finally discovers him as a renegade voluptuary enjoying himself, with his attendant monks, in the pure mountain air, while his deserted flock perish miserably of the pestilence in the city below. In a really striking situation she hails him as her spiritual father, rehearsing the method of her own conversion, and so works upon his conscience that presently he sounds the tocsin and summons his monks to return with him to labor among the dead and the dying. Secular interest in the story is maintained by the adventurous history of two lovers, whose happiness is finally brought about by the apparently miraculous intervention of the saintly Maddalena. The dominant note of the play is one of religious rhapsody, and in other respects, the piece, in its present shape, is scarcely fitted for stage representation; but its quality is dramatic, and it shows both descriptive and imaginative power. The sincerity of its purpose is unmistakable.

## Music.

*Unmusical New York.* By Hermann Klein. New York: John Lane Co. \$1.50 net.

It is surprising that Schopenhauer did not mention among the many arguments favoring his system of pessimism the fact that when a man deliberately starts out to tell "the truth" about anything, he invariably has something disagreeable to say. Last October Hermann Klein delivered a lecture in London under the title of "The Truth about Music in America." He had, after devoting a quarter of a century to teaching in London and writing musical criticisms, emigrated to New York, where he taught a few years, and, toward the end, became a manager of concerts which cost him and his backers much money. It was not necessarily *hinc illa lacrima* (although the verdict of European musicians on America is nearly always in direct ratio to their financial success over here); but, at any rate, the lecture referred to was not pleasant for Americans to hear or read. Greatly enlarged, it has now been brought out in book form, under the name of "Unmusical New York," the author confessing that the more comprehensive title was misleading.

While the title of the book is even more offensive than that of the original lecture, the language is more conciliatory, and our virtues are not altogether overlooked. Mr. Klein admits that our audiences behave well. Not once did he hear an audience hiss or "boo" at a performer, or indulge in any direct manifestation of impatience or displeasure. American audiences are also as a whole "wonderfully quick to respond to the mood of the artist, . . . ready to recognize temperament and magnetism in



the performer. A more delightful public to sing or play before I have never encountered." Moreover, since the author admits that "America pays for genuine talent alone," we may infer that our audiences possess real powers of discrimination. Of our musicians, the organists appear to have made a particularly favorable impression; they are characterized as "a splendid set of musicians—capable, industrious, conscientious, and thorough."

In not one of his eleven chapters does Mr. Klein justify his use of "unmusical" as applicable to this city more particularly than to any European capital. The London *Telegraph* pointed out after he had delivered his lecture last autumn that, *mutatis mutandis*, he might as well have called his lecture "The Truth About Music in England." When Mr. Klein declares (p. 40), that it would be "supremely absurd" to say that New Yorkers "support music purely for the art's sake," as do the inhabitants of Manchester (?), Hamburg, Frankfurt, Munich, Leipzig, and Brussels, where "the demand for music is the equivalent of a daily necessity," he indulges in language which itself is superlatively absurd. In the Proceedings of the Music Teachers' National Association, reviewed in these columns last week, Adolf Weidig remarks that chamber music, which is the severest test of musical culture, has in Germany "steadily lost ground, and not even the famous Bohemians can any longer draw a full house." That kind of music lacks sensationalism, and it is sensationalism that the modern German audience craves. New York is not quite as bad as that; our Kneisel Quartet always plays to a crowded house. As regards our orchestral concerts, Mr. Klein himself admits that "there is much thorough and sincere appreciation of the best that is to be heard in serious music. The classical masterpieces are beloved, and fine orchestral playing is intensely enjoyed."

As a matter of course, Mr. Klein has his sneer at New York as "the very hot-bed of the star system," and he pities local amateurs for being "less concerned with works than with performers, with operas than with singers, with orchestras than with conductors." If he had added that we are less concerned with pianos than with pianists, with violins than with violinists, the foolishness of his reproach would have been obvious. A first-rate pianist at a second-rate piano is decidedly preferable to a second-rate pianist at a first-rate piano; and who would not rather hear "Rigoletto" with Tetrazzini and Renaud than "Tristan" with an ensemble of mediocrities who cannot do justice to it? There is not a city in Europe which would not be proud to be the "hot-bed of the star system." If the presence of nearly all the European artists of the first rank for

five months a year has not done something to make New York a musical city, then there is no such thing as education in art.

Nor can we allow to go unchallenged the author's statement that much is done here for foreign and very little for native singers. There is absolutely no prejudice shown. As soon as an American singer attains to distinction abroad, he or she is engaged for the Metropolitan Opera House, as witness Eames, Nordica, Farrar, Homer, Martin, Hinckley, Whitehill, and many others. During the season just closed, there were included in the Metropolitan company, sixteen American singers, against eighteen Italians, twenty-one Germans and Austrians, twelve French and Russians, which is a very encouraging proportion. Henry W. Savage reversed the process, engaging untried American singers, many of whom are now prominent in foreign opera houses, as well as our own. What Mr. Klein says in regard to the deplorable state of choral music here is unfortunately true; also his assertion that New York has not a single great teaching institution. His most interesting chapters are those in which he tells the truth, as he sees it, about Maurice Grau, Heinrich Conried, and other operatic managers.

The Metropolitan Opera season, which ended last Saturday, will be memorable as the season during which the experiment was tried of having a double orchestra and a double chorus, thus making it possible to give simultaneous performances in New York and other cities. This experiment has proved so expensive that it will not be repeated. A sequel to it, however, is under trial in the West. This month Chicago is to be the operatic centre, with thirty-three performances by one wing or the other of the company, while the second wing appears in Baltimore, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Toledo, Detroit, Milwaukee, St. Paul, St. Louis, Indianapolis, Louisville, and Atlanta. Most of the operas sung at the Metropolitan will be presented on this tour, with virtually the same casts.

Andreas Dippel, who directs this tour, will be the general manager of Chicago's new opera company next season. In the two years that he was administrative manager of the Metropolitan Company he did more than any one else to restore Wagner's operas to popular favor. They lead in the list of performances given at this house during the last twenty weeks, the figures being: Wagner, 31; Verdi, 24; Puccini, 18; Mascagni, 7; Leoncavallo, Massenet, and Ponchielli, 6 each; Gluck and Gounod, 5 each; Franchetti, Humperdinck, and Tchaikowsky, 4 each; Donizetti, Auber, and Flotow, 3 each; Weber and Converse, 2 each; Bellini, 1. At the New Theatre (which will be purely a playhouse hereafter) twenty operas were performed in Italian, fifteen in French, seven in German, one in English.

At the Manhattan Opera House French opera played a much more important part than at the Metropolitan, where there were only 14 French performances, against 45

German and 82 Italian. Mr. Hammerstein's list includes 53 performances of operas by French composers (Massenet, Audran, Bizet, Maillart, Planquette, Gounod, Saint-Saëns, Charpentier, Debussy, Delibes), against 41 by Italians (Verdi, Mascagni, Leoncavallo, Donizetti, Puccini), and 22 by German composers (Wagner, Strauss, Offenbach). The German operas were sung in French, as was also "Lakmé." "Elektra" was given seven times, "Salome" four times.

William Candidus, who had sung tenor rôles in grand opera, presented in English in this city—especially Lohengrin, at the Academy of Music, in 1886, and Nero, at the Metropolitan Opera House, in 1887—died at Frankfort-on-the-Main last week, at the age of sixty-nine. He was born in Philadelphia, and served in the Union army for two years during the civil war.

Edouard Colonne, the French musical conductor, died last week, at the age of seventy-one. He visited America in 1868-69 as concert master of the opera-bouffe company managed by Col. James Flisk, Jr., and conducted concerts of the Philharmonic Society of this city in 1903 and 1904. In 1892-93 he was leader of the orchestra of the Grand Opera in Paris.

## Art.

*A History of Architecture.* By Russell Sturgis. Vol. II. Romanesque and Oriental. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co. xxxii+488 pp; 392+5. Illustrations. \$5.

This comes to us as a posthumous work, prepared for publication by the author's son, D. N. B. Sturgis, and by Prof. A. L. Frothingham, from manuscripts nearly completed before the author's death last February. It is a worthy legacy from the most distinguished, as he was the most prolific, of American writers on architecture and the allied arts. In syncretical grasp and presentation, in breadth of view and comprehensiveness of treatment, in historical perspective, and proportion, this volume marks a notable advance over the first, which appeared some two years ago. It covers the history of Oriental and mediæval architecture, down to the twelfth century, or rather to the period when what we call Romanesque architecture began to develop clearly into what we call the Gothic. Asiatic architecture of both the non-Moslem and Moslem styles, the Early Christian or Latin, the Byzantine, and the Romanesque styles form the subject-matter of this volume, leaving the entire Gothic development and the Renaissance and modern styles for the third volume.

The arrangement and sequence of subjects treated seem a little confusing at first sight. Book vi, the first in this volume, is devoted to the non-Moslem architectures of Asia. It is not quite clear why they are thus interjected between the Roman chapters with which the first volume concludes, and the seventh book,

on "The Styles Resulting from the Decline of Ancient Art." It should seem as if the subject matter of book vi might better have been left to the end of the entire history, where it would not interrupt the historical sequence. The early basilicas, churches of radiate plan, the Byzantine influence, and Byzantine monuments occupy the seventh book; and this is followed, as chronology and historical relations agree in prescribing, by the Moslem monuments in Syria, Egypt, North Africa and Spain, Persia and India, Sicily and Spain. The dividing of the text on the Spanish Moslem work into two sections in separate chapters is hardly warranted. The Turkish Moslem architecture is wholly omitted, probably for chronological reasons, but the wisdom of thus relegating it to the third volume is questionable, and the reader seeking for some mention of it or reference to its proposed assignment to the later volume will be disappointed. The eighth book takes up the later Romanesque of Italy; the ninth and last, the later Romanesque of France, Great Britain, Germany, Spain, Scandinavia, and Armenia. Most treatises classify the Armenian monuments with the Byzantine, but Mr. Sturgis has preferred to consider them as Romanesque, and not without good reason.

Nearly all the subjects covered by these four books were peculiarly congenial to Mr. Sturgis's taste and turn of mind. The splendid decorative quality of all the Moslem styles appealed to his love of the arts of pure design, while the intellectual quality, the dominance of reason and logic in seeking and applying means to architectural ends, in the mediæval styles of western Europe, strongly attracted his analytical mind. This volume was evidently written *con amore*; it embodies the enthusiastic study of a lifetime, and there is in general excellent proportion between its various subjects, no one subject or section being slighted in favor of another. Each book is prefaced or introduced by a brief historical sketch of the period treated, and these outlines are models of condensed statement and broad, graphic characterization.

In all the various sections of this volume, however, Mr. Sturgis is the examiner, the analyzer, the critic, rather than the historian. Thus, for instance, of the six and one-fourth pages given to the historical introduction to Moslem Architecture (Book viii), three and one-half are occupied with an analysis and description of various forms of the arch. The marvellous sweep of the Mohammedan conquests in the seventh and eighth centuries, the overwhelming of the Byzantine, Persian, and Mediterranean civilizations over vast areas by a race of nomads, and the singular processes by which in a short time under these conquering non-builders wholly novel and surprisingly rich architectures were

developed—all this is disposed of in two and three-fourths pages. This is not meant as a hostile criticism; it is simply an illustration of an attitude deliberately taken and consistently maintained. Mr. Sturgis cared little for, or at least did not care extensively to treat, the details of style-evolutions, of historical influences and transmissions, upon which archaeologists and many historians of art love to dwell. His interest was in the buildings themselves: their plan, construction, *raison-d'être*, their excellences and defects. But less space is given to the structural evolution of the later Romanesque styles, the genesis and varying forms of vault, spire, and buttress, of clustered pier, recessed doorway, and apsidal chapel, than one would have expected of a writer so gifted in analysis, and less, it seems to the reviewer, than the subject really demands. Thus the problem of nave- and aisle-vault buttressing is referred to quite incidentally in a number of individual instances, as, for example, in connection with St. John's in the Tower, London (p. 370); but nowhere is this problem, so fundamental to the whole later Romanesque development, alike in France and England, discussed comprehensively as a topic by itself. So also of the problem of the oblong vault-bay, referred to in connection with the Abbey Church at Vézelay (p. 352). It would thus appear that the writer's interest was always centred on the particular building more than upon its place in the great and general onward movement of architectural development which gave it its form and details. The space assigned to the Anglo-Norman buildings is perhaps sufficient, but might well have been more generous—seventeen pages only as against fifty-nine for the French Romanesque, and twenty-four to Germany. There is no reference to the secular and military buildings of the Romanesque period.

The references to restorations are frequent and judicious. This aspect of the subject is too often ignored in historical treatises of a comprehensive character.

This second volume of the three projected by its author must remain the final monument of his literary activity, and the most serious and valuable of his works, with the possible exception of "The Artist's Way of Working." It is written in a simple and unaffected style, less discursive than that of the first volume, and gives us the maturest judgments of the author's ripest years. Controversial matters are avoided or referred to by a brief presentation of both sides. The 392 illustrations are well selected, with a fair proportion—which would have borne increasing without injury—of plans; they are well presented and are genuinely illustrative and helpful to the text. The sources of the illustrations are very carefully indicat-

ed. There is a table of contents and a list of illustrations, but no index either of places or topics—an unfortunate omission, unless to be supplied in the final volume of the series. The publishers have done their work well, producing a handsome volume, which opens out in a truly comfortable way, and is well printed on a heavy plate paper.

#### THE INDEPENDENT ARTISTS.

As an exhibition that has almost grown over night, that of the Independent Artists is remarkable. In spite of artificial light, the lower gallery is impressive. One feels at ease with the whole, and sees the individual pictures, each of which has its own electric light, in all comfort. On the second and third floors, it has been difficult to bring the numerous small pictures into decorative unity. The show has grown in an interesting way. A number of artists, for one reason or other out of touch with the Academy, formed a committee and invited a number of men of like minds to send in pictures and pay their shot. There is no jury and a minimum of organization. An old dwelling house has been reduced to a shell, and affords ample wall space. Evidently there are plenty of people waiting for the chance to exhibit, for in a single day 260 paintings and 344 drawings were loaded upon the devoted shoulders of the hanging committee.

How one takes the show itself is largely a matter of temperament. Many, of whom is the present writer, will find it rather variously diverting and disappointing. It is distinctly more amusing than the Academy ever is; it also reveals an amount of rather empty self-assertiveness such as never cumber the Academic walls. Some of the best exhibitors are Academicians. Robert Henri, whose influence is pervasive, is a full-fledged N.A.; George Bellows, W. J. Glackens, and Ernest Lawson are prominent A.N.A.'s. George Luks, who ought to have been the lion of this show, is preparing an exhibition which he has declined to discount, even for the public good. Now, if such contributions as Henri's Salome Dancer—a vivid perpetuation of a moment hardly worth eternizing on this scale; Lawson's admirable White Horse in a riverscape, Bellows's gory prize fights and remarkable architectural composition, Glackens's race-course, playground, and nude were withdrawn, the glory of the exhibition would have departed. In other words, the best contributors to the anti-academical demonstration are by men the Academy has delighted to honor.

Still the residuum would quite justify the enterprise. It is a pleasure to see A. B. Davies torn from precious surroundings and exposed to the average chance. He stands the test well. His picture *An Movement of Water* is one



of the memorable impressions. In a narrow channel deeply blue waves, as they race through, are tossed back upon themselves; beyond is a pearly and serrated mountain. In the foreground little nudes unconsciously mimic the rush and backset of the waves. Here is a real vision carried out with perfect clearness. Work of this character is rare anywhere. We advise a visitor to adjust his eye by this picture. It will help him to see that much of the most emphatic work is weak and vague expression of something imperfectly visualized. Everett Shinn's vivacious studies of dancers and actors, Jerome Myers's poignant transcripts from the Ghetto, John Sloan's sub-satirical versions of the East Side themes—these names recall tried pleasures; it is merely advantageous to see this work well hung and in a large company.

Among those who are wearing the shoes of Cézanne, the most skilful are Prendegast, Blashki, and Schamberg. In sacrificing his old staccato precision in favor of greater bulk, it may seem that Prendegast is substituting a less for a more congenial product. Time will tell. Blashki's three seasonal studies, Summer, Autumn, Spring, are beautiful in color, and ring true in tone.

Rockwell Kent is willing to take a hint from so old-fashioned a body as Winslow Homer. Mr. Kent's big road roller, with its straining horses, and his two marines are large in scale, and vigorous enough for anybody whose daily food is not Dorothy Rice's nightmares from the slums. From the emphatic persons who, to judge by their works, paint in horrid orgasms, one turns to the brooding spirits. Mr. Swett's crystalline Château Gaillard, with its exquisitely adjusted planes, J. B. Yeats's sensitive portrait of a bearded old man, James Preston's vernal river bank with little girls bathing, Nankivell's alluring park scene with Lilliputian players so alertly spotted in—these were the things that called one away from the general atmosphere of excursions and alarms.

In sculpture, Gutzon Borglum's colossal head of Lincoln lords it. So touching is its character of strength, tempered by benignity, that it would not be surprising if the people should accept it as the standard portrait of their greatest representative. James W. Fraser's portraits, and Albert Humphreys's animals are otherwise, perhaps, the most interesting sculpture exhibits. The entire top floor has been devoted to drawings and etchings. Glackens shows the pastel sketch for his big nude, downstairs. It is a fine study and an excellent lesson in scale. Henri's caricatures represent a side of his talent unknown to the public. They are capital in character and economy of means. For sheer drastic character, Jerome Myers's and George Bellows's slum sketches are extraordinary. Mr. Bellows, in fact, forces

expression to the danger point. John Sloan's etchings for Paul de Kock's novels have as much character and less naïveté. The line is at once sensitive and austere, the mood realistic but supremely elegant. It is illustration and draughtsmanship of a high order. Glenn O. Coleman and May Preston Wilson, popular illustrators both, are represented by large groups of drawings. Leon Dabo's studies in miniature seem more interesting than his pictures. Two big drawings from the nude, by Gutzon Borglum, have a large accent.

The show is so large that one is easily lost in casual observation. The half would be better than the whole. On the smaller issue, do we need a large annual exhibition beside the Academy? there can be only one answer: We do. Here is a great deal of vivacious or positively accomplished work that for one reason or another is never seen in the Academy and rarely elsewhere. On the large issue, is this ferment of issues promising a new and finer art? It would be sheer folly to give a dogmatic answer. The instinct of one old-fashioned writer is that there is more green, yellow, and red sickness about than positive talent.

F. J. M.

Of the excellent translation of Gaston Migeon's "Au Japon," by Florence Simmonds, entitled "In Japan: Pilgrimages to the Shrines of Art," we need only remark that in illustration and typographical form the English version follows closely the French original edition. It will fit a fairly capacious pocket. It is published conjointly by William Heinemann of London and J. B. Lippincott Company of Philadelphia.

"The Evolution of Italian Sculpture," by Lord Balcarras (Dutton), is one of those fairly good books which leave one asking why they are not better. The author has produced a comprehensive history of style somewhat after the model of Wölfflin's admirable studies of the Renaissance. There are many good illustrations skilfully grouped to show the progress of the art. But style is too often taken in its more obvious and superficial features of anatomy and iconography. Moreover, Lord Balcarras's manner, while dignified, lacks salience. As the paragraphs run their placid course into chapters, one thing seems about as important as another, and no enduring impression is made upon the imagination. This is a pity, for the book is independently conceived and combats certain accepted views. In asserting that the Renaissance was more influenced by the idea of the antique than by specific monuments, we think a valuable point of view is suggested, but the visible remnants of Roman antiquity are underestimated. Not merely the storied columns at Rome and the Horse Tamers spoke eloquently through the centuries of the glory that had been, but high and low in Italy Roman capitals, mouldings, sarcophagi, told the same story and afforded the same opportunity. Where this book seems weakest is in the treatments of the early Renaissance. We miss any adequate statement of the interrelation of bas-relief and graphic design.

Much that is said of Michelangelo is excellent, and the treatment of the later baroque is sympathetic and novel. Michelangelo, however, should not be set down as a poor portraitist for his purely symbolic effigies of Lorenzo and Giuliano de' Medici. There is some carelessness in attributions and in the printing of proper names: Verrocchio and Pinturicchio repeatedly turn up with their r's and c's ill distributed. In the chapter on portraiture the remarkable thirteenth-century heads outside the Pisan Baptistery should have been mentioned. In their keen characterization they mark a stage toward actual interpretation of individual faces. Venturi attributes them to the great Niccolò, whom pretty much everybody but Lord Balcarras now concedes to be an Apulian. In general the execution of this book falls below the expectations aroused by its ambitious design.

"J.-B. Isabey: Sa Vie—Son Temps" is one of those beautifully printed, lavishly illustrated, and well documented in-folios which the French love to provide for well-to-do amateurs. The author, Mme. de Basilly-Callimaki, has fully exploited the personal and biographical interest of a life-work including the whole Napoleonic era, with the Bourbon restoration, the Orleans interregnum, and the beginnings of the third Bonaparte. Never a great painter, in portraiture, and especially in miniature, Isabey had his happy moments. In a rather dull time as regards technic he kept alive the tradition of Gallic vivacity. In his maturity he was flexible enough to adopt the Romantic technic and feeling. He turned his hand to anything, from a huge historical "machine," to a Sèvres plate, or the back-scene of an opera, and everything he did more than commonly well. To him we owe some of the most revealing portraits of Napoleon, especially that unconscious satire, the Emperor in wedding costume; the pathetic figure of the little Duc de Reichstadt, and many a hint of the fair frailties that enlivened war's intervals. Isabey was loved. Metternich wrote when the painter left Vienna: "You who so readily have grasped the traits of your friends will also know how to remember them." In all a thoroughly amiable and representative figure of an eminently genial time. This volume is imported by Lemcke & Buechner and published in only 550 examples, of which 50 are on Japan vellum.

## Finance.

### SIGNS OF THE TIMES IN INVESTMENT FINANCE.

Two aspects of the financial situation of the day are challenging particular attention, in the present somewhat perplexing posture of affairs. One is the rise in operating expenses of our great investment corporations; the other is the increasing difficulty of finding a ready market for the unprecedented mass of new securities issued by these companies. The underlying cause is pretty much the same in both cases, and both have been discussed in a striking manner, this past week, by high authorities in railway finance.

Within a month, the New Haven, the Pennsylvania, the Reading, and the Baltimore and Ohio Railways have granted, to a substantial part of their workforces, increase in wages ranging from 6 to 10 per cent. Conferences between company and employees, with a similar end in view, have been held by the New York Central, Erie, Lackawanna, Lehigh Valley, and Delaware and Hudson. Perhaps the most frequent and most obvious comment on the episode has been the remark that wages of the relatively poorer-paid employees were advanced to meet the advancing cost of living. It has also been suggested that, by increasing wages, the purchasing power of the masses would be enhanced, and that thereby trade prosperity would be increased.

Last week, the president of the New York Central voiced still another inference. Beginning with the statement, not new on the part of railway officers, that "a general advance in freight rates, such as will enable the roads to carry the additional burden, is the logical next step." Mr. Brown concluded with the assertion that "if the railways are to remain solvent, the only recourse now is an advance of freight rates." Inasmuch as the establishing of such higher rates is always more or less a matter of doubt, one might have imagined that so extraordinary a prophecy, from a high railway official, would have been followed promptly by disaster in the market for railway shares. Nothing of the sort occurred—which indicated either that investors were not taking Mr. Brown's prophecy altogether seriously, or that over against his pessimistic prediction they set his company's increase in its annual dividend, two weeks ago, to the highest rate paid in a quarter of a century, or else that they believed higher freight charges would come if the necessity were proved, though possibly not otherwise.

A second incident of the week had to do with the investment market. In a speech to the Merchants' Club of Chicago in November, 1906, James J. Hill declared that, in order to escape a commercial paralysis which, "long continued, would mean slow commercial death," the railways of this country must have \$1,100,000,000 new capital per annum during the next five years. Last week, Mr. Hill reiterated his prophecy of 1906, but raised his estimate of annual requirements from \$1,100,000,000 to \$1,600,000,000, and extended the term for such annual outlay to six years, adding:

This country is up against a stone wall, and it can't see either end or over. We might come in contact with a comet and survive the shock, but we cannot go on with our railroads in their present condition. The importance of the subject is not realized. To my way of thinking, it is of more importance than a total failure of crops. As to where the railways were to get

such a sum of money, Mr. Hill had no suggestion to make; he believed, however, that failure to provide the annual \$1,600,000,000 would spell calamity.

There are manifestly two distinct questions arising from such a statement. First, is it true that the railways positively must raise this stupendous sum? Secondly, can such a sum be obtained in the investment markets? *Poor's Manual* gives these figures for the annual additions to outstanding stocks, bonds, and other securities of the American railways, reckoning by fiscal years:

1908 ....	\$723,473,146	1903 ....	\$671,095,998
1907 ....	907,864,112	1902 ....	527,435,776
1906 ....	1,030,349,026	1901 ....	434,589,187
1905 ....	481,443,565	1900 ....	199,085,273
1904 ....	556,133,066	1899 ....	107,748,030

Figures for 1909 are not yet compiled, but they are expected to exceed all other years. As the above figures stand, they indicate that the borrowings of our railways during 1906, on account of new capital, were greater by 400 per cent. than the borrowings of 1900, and that Mr. Hill's new estimate, if realized, would make the average annual capital issues, from 1910 to 1915 inclusive, exactly 200 per cent. larger than the annual average from 1901 to 1906 inclusive. Yet the country's population to-day, as estimated by the government, is only 16 per cent. larger than at the beginning of 1901. The country's clearing house exchanges, which reflect its traffic and production, broke all records in 1909, but the year's total exceeded by only 40 per cent. the total of 1901. Some allowance must undoubtedly be made for the advance of 20 per cent. since 1901 in average commodity prices, by the *Bradstreet* estimate; for railways, as well as other people, have to pay more than before for the same materials. But even so, we are very far from showing any such expansion as on its face would warrant Mr. Hill's estimate of indispensable capital requisitions.

As for the second question—whether the \$1,600,000,000 per annum will be provided by the money market—the signs of the moment certainly do not indicate that this can be expected on the former terms. The investment market, like other markets, is governed in its attitude by supply and demand, and supply has to all appearances far over-run the normal demand. At a price (measured either in higher interest rate on bonds, or at a heavier discount in the selling price) the capital might be had. Such high-grade borrowers as the British Exchequer, the United States Government, and the City of New York, have been confronted with a similar dilemma, and have met it by offering their bonds on more inviting terms. But the railways do not wish to make such concessions; hence, perhaps, the partial deadlock in the market. The ordinary

outside observer, mindful, perhaps, of his personal experience, would be inclined to suggest either that the railways should revise their rapidly mounting schedule of expenditure; or else, if they will not do without this enormously increased total of new capital, that they should make up their minds to pay the price.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK

- Aicard, J. Maurin. Translated by A. Allinson. Lane Co. \$1.50.  
 Andreiyeff, L. A Dilemma. Philadelphia: Brown Bros. \$1.  
 Ardagh, W. M. The Magada. Lane Co. \$1.50.  
 Baedeker's Great Britain. Seventh edition. Scribner. \$3 net.  
 Balmer, E., and MacHarg, W. The Achievements of Luther Trant. Boston: Small, Maynard. \$1.50.  
 Beloc, H. On Everything. Dutton. \$1.25 net.  
 Benedict, F. G., and Carpenter, T. M. Respiration Calorimeters for Studying the Respiratory Exchange and Energy Transformations of Man. Carnegie Institution of Washington.  
 Bierce, A. Collected Works. Vol. III. Chicago: Neale Publishing Co.  
 Binns, C. F. The Potter's Craft. Van Nostrand. \$2 net.  
 Boss, L. Preliminary General Catalogue of 6,188 Stars for the Epoch 1900. Carnegie Institution of Washington.  
 Brasted, F. The Gang: A Story of the Middle West. Philadelphia: Griffith & Rowland Press. \$1.25.  
 Bright, J. W., and Miller, R. D. The Elements of English Versification. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80 cents.  
 Brown, A. Country Neighbors. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. \$1.20 net.  
 Brown, E. E. Government by Influence and Other Addresses. Longmans. \$1.35 net.  
 Buck, C. D. Introduction to the Study of the Greek Dialects. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$2.75.  
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